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# USSR Report

HUMAN RESOURCES

No. 42



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## LABOR

### SHIBAYEV ON ROLE OF TRADE UNIONS IN SOVIET POLITICAL SYSTEM

Moscow NOVOSTI DAILY REVIEW in English 30 Sep 81 pp 1-5

[Interview with Alexei Shibayev, chairman of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions of the USSR, by APN correspondent; date and place not given]

[Question] What are the specific features of the activity of trade unions in socialist society?

[Answer] Under conditions of socialism trade unions, in Lenin's definitions, are a school of administration, a school of management, a school of communism. The founder of the Communist Party and the Soviet state has stressed that it is not a state organization, nor is it one designed for coercion, but for education, an organization designed to draw in and to train.

Lenin's words have formulated the basic ideas, principles and tasks on which the USSR's trade unions' rest. In the country where power fully belongs to the people trade unions by their very nature are active creators of a new society. In their activity the care for the development of the national economy and the rise of production is organically blended with the care for the rights and interests of workers and employees, for working and living conditions of Soviet people.

Uniting on a voluntary basis 130 million workers, employees, farmers, students of higher schools and specialized secondary schools, trade unions of this country act as an influential public force. Their high duty is to be a powerful means of developing socialist democracy, of drawing working people into the building of a new society. The concrete functions of trade unions are inseparable from man's requirements in production and in everyday life, from his social and spiritual interests.

Expressing the interests of the people, socialist democracy has given Soviet trade unions real rights for the direct participation in running state and public affairs and in solving political, economic, social and cultural problems. These rights are legally sealed in the Soviet Constitution. In particular, the Constitution gives trade unions the right for a legislative initiative, that is, the right to work out and submit draft laws aimed at improving the people's living and working conditions. Trade unions vigorously act in work collectives, that is, where big notions of politics and economics are translated into everyday organizational work, where the ideological positions of people and their attitude to work and to



public property are moulded. It is here, as many years' experience of the trade unions' participation in building socialist society confirms, that Lenin's instructions to Soviet trade unionists is embodied in practice. And Lenin required that Soviet trade unionists should be in the thick of life, should thoroughly know life, should win unlimited trust by the masses through a comradely attitude to them and the adequate satisfaction of the needs of the masses.

[Question] What is the contribution of Soviet trade unions to the fulfillment of the social and economic programme of the 11th five-year plan?

[Answer] Our trade unions are well aware that the material wellbeing of working people directly depends on the level of economic development: the higher is this level the greater are opportunities for solving all social problems. That is why they strive to make a weighty contribution to the country's economic growth, contribute to the improvement of economic planning, develop by their specific methods the working people's business activity and draw millions of workers and employees into technical innovatory work and socialist emulation.

The social programme adopted at the 26th Party Congress envisages a further rise in the material and cultural standards of Soviet people. The 11th five-year plan (1981-1985) will ensure a stable growth of the wages and salaries of workers and employees, the high rates of housing construction and construction of cultural establishments, the considerable expansion of medicare, the development of education and the improvement of public services in urban and rural areas. In the course of the implementation of this programme trade unions are to take a broad range of measures. As previously, their attention is focused on the problems of housing construction and distribution of flats among the working people, on the development of the network of preschool establishments and of factory canteens, on problems of labour safety and organization of health-building, sport and cultural mass work in work collectives. Huge funds are earmarked for these purposes by the state and by the trade unions, and our main task is to ensure the complete and timely use of these funds so that working people and their families should benefit from them.

[Question] The 26th Congress of the CPSU noted the drawbacks in the activity of trade unions. How have trade unions received criticism? What conclusions have been drawn?

[Answer] The 26th Congress continued and creatively developed Lenin's traditions of the Party's solicitude for trade unions. It called on trade union organizations to work more vigorously and it revealed the objective necessity of the more effective use of trade unions' broad rights in defending the legitimate interests of the working people.

This opens up prospects for the more effective participation of the mass organizations of working people in tackling economic, social and cultural problems.

The trade unions welcomed enthusiastically the economic strategy of the Party set forth by the Congress. Its supreme goal is to steadily raise the people's material and cultural standards and create better conditions for the all-round

development of the personality. Trade union organizations and millions of their activists started vigorous work on improving the economic mechanism. They help introduce the most advanced forms of labour organization and actively promote the technical modernization of enterprises. The trade unions fully back the Congress' line toward thrifty management.

The trade unions seriously approached their direct task to be more initiative and persistent in problems of fulfilling collective treaties and labour protection and to take more resolute steps against violations of labour legislation, red tape and formalism.

At present trade unions considerably increase their control over the solution of all problems of Soviet people's day-to-day work and life and expand their participation in production planning and management, choosing and distributing personnel and effective utilization of factories' and offices' funds.

Trade unions improve the style, forms and methods of their work, change their structure and see to it that their activities more fully meet present-day demands. The role of workers' meetings and primary trade union organizations is being raised at factories, offices and construction projects.

Soviet trade unions steadily follow Leonid Brezhnev's instructions. The Soviet leader stressed that only in case the opinion of workers is taken into account in drawing up social and economic plans, they can be true masters of production. These words help trade unions further improve their work at the stage of communist construction.

[Question] The 17th Congress of Soviet trade unions will be held in March 1982. What new elements will it introduce into the trade unions' work?

[Answer] The guidelines for the economic and social development of the USSR for 1981-1985 and the period ending in 1990 approved by the 26th Soviet Communist Party Congress formulated a historic task--to ensure the fullest utilization of the advantages and possibilities of mature socialism and to largely increase its material and cultural values and production, scientific and technical potential. At the coming 17th Congress our trade unions will, certainly, determine their role in accomplishing this nationwide task.

The Congress will reflect the growing role of trade unions in socialist society and sum up the results of their activities in the past five years. Over this period the number of trade union members has gone up by 16.5 million, while the social base of trade unions has largely expanded. The Congress will also show the deep democratic principles of Soviet trade unions.

Over the past period trade unions have gained vast and valuable experience and advanced many new problems in all spheres of their work. In its discussion the Congress will touch upon all these changes and make it possible to define the program of Soviet trade unions' subsequent activities. This program will be addressed to every Soviet working man. It will further raise the role of work collectives and their trade unions in solving radical problems of production and

the life and recreation of working people and their families. The delegates will actively discuss forms and methods of trade union activities and trade unions' role in the constructive work of the Soviet people, who build communism.

We hope that the Congress will be attended by representatives of the working class of many countries. This will again stress the class internationalist community of Soviet trade unions and progressive forces of today's international trade union movement.

CSO: 1812/3

## LABOR

### BALANCED ECONOMIC GROWTH, REGIONAL PROBLEMS OF UTILIZING LABOR RESOURCES

Moscow IZVESTIYA AKADEMII NAUK SSSR: SERIYA EKONOMICHESKAYA in Russian No 4, Jun-Aug 81, pp 60-72

[Article by N. A. Shokin, N. Khonaliyev and D. A. Kurtanidze: "Balanced Growth of the Economy and Regional Problems in the Utilization of Labor Resources"]

[Text] The article considers ways of carrying out several tasks set by the 26th Congress concerning proportional growth of the economies of the union republics in the process of the development of the unified national economic complex of the USSR, particularly questions of balancing working positions with labor resources under the conditions of the significant interrepublic differences in the rates of natural increase of the population and labor resources, and also the migratory movement of the population. It substantiates directions for fuller utilization of the labor resources of the republics which are distinguished by a high natural increase in the population.

The "Main Directions for the Economic and Social Development of the USSR during 1981-1985 and the Period up to 1990" that were adopted by the 26th CPSU Congress envision "carrying out dynamic and balanced development of the USSR economy as a unified national economic complex and proportionally expanding all of its branches and the enterprises of the union republics." In addition to a complex of other measures for solving this problem, it is intended to "take measures for achieving a balance between existing and created working positions, on the one hand, and labor resources, on the other." Obviously, a concept such as balance includes not simply a quantitative correspondence between the number of working positions and labor resources, but also a correspondence between them in terms of the branch structure, occupational training and labor skills. But the achievement of balance on the scale of the country must be augmented by balance in each union republic, economic rayon, oblast and industrial center. Since the demographic situation and the growth rates of labor resources differ essentially in the various union republics, the ways of carrying out these tasks are not the same either.

As we know, the amount of natural growth of labor resources in one period of time or another is conditioned by the rate of reproduction of the population approximately two decades prior to this period (taking into account universal secondary education of youths, the education of some youth in VUZ's and tekhnikums, and service in the armed forces).



From Table 1 it is clear that approximately 20 years ago there began a sharp differentiation among the union republics in terms of the level of birth rate and natural increase of the population. Thus in 1950 the birth rate in the RSFSR was only one-fifth, and in Lithuania--one-fourth less than in the Central Asian republics. The Moldavian SSR has held first place in terms of this indicator, and the natural growth of the population was low only in Latvia and in Estonia. By 1960 the birth rate in the Central Asian and in two Transcaucasian republics had increased, and in the remaining ones it had begun to drop. In 1970 the number of births per one thousand residents in the RSFSR was 40-50 percent, in Lithuania--50 percent, and in Moldavia and Georgia--50-66 percent of the number in the Central Asian republics and Azerbaijan. This ratio remained up to the end of the 1970's.

Table 1. Birth Rate and Natural Increase in Population in Various Union Republics During 1950-1978 (per 100 Residents)

Республики (1)	1950 г.		1960 г.		1970 г.		1978 г.	
	(2) Число рождений на 1000 жителей	(3) Естественный прирост	(2) Число рождений на 1000 жителей	(3) Естественный прирост	(2) Число рождений на 1000 жителей	(3) Естественный прирост	(2) Число рождений на 1000 жителей	(3) Естественный прирост
(4) СССР	26,7	17,0	24,9	17,8	17,4	9,2	18,2	8,5
(5) Российская СФСР	26,9	16,8	23,2	15,8	14,6	5,9	15,9	5,6
(6) Украинская ССР	22,8	14,3	20,5	13,6	15,2	6,4	14,7	4,0
(7) Белорусская ССР	25,5	17,5	24,5	17,9	16,2	8,6	15,9	6,8
(8) Литовская ССР	23,6	11,6	22,5	14,7	17,6	8,7	15,3	5,3
(9) Латвийская ССР	17,0	4,6	16,7	6,7	14,5	3,3	13,6	1,2
(10) Эстонская ССР	18,4	4,0	16,6	6,1	15,8	4,7	14,9	2,7
(11) Молдавская ССР	38,9	27,7	29,2	22,8	19,4	12,0	20,1	10,3
(12) Грузинская ССР	23,5	15,9	24,7	18,2	19,2	11,9	17,7	9,7
(13) Азербайджанская ССР	31,2	21,6	42,6	35,9	29,2	22,5	24,9	18,2
(14) Армянская ССР	32,1	23,6	40,3	33,5	22,1	17,0	22,2	16,7
(15) Казахская ССР	37,6	25,9	37,7	30,2	23,4	17,4	24,4	17,0
(16) Узбекская ССР	30,9	22,1	39,9	33,9	33,6	28,1	33,9	27,0
(17) Киргизская ССР	32,4	23,9	36,8	30,7	30,5	23,1	30,4	22,3
(18) Таджикская ССР	30,4	22,2	33,5	28,4	34,8	28,4	37,5	29,2
(19) Туркменская ССР	38,2	28,0	42,4	35,9	35,2	28,6	34,4	26,4

Key:

- |                     |                       |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Republics        | 11. Moldavian SSR     |
| 2. Number of births | 12. Georgian SSR      |
| 3. Natural increase | 13. Azerbaijanian SSR |
| 4. USSR             | 14. Armenian SSR      |
| 5. RSFSR            | 15. Kazakh SSR        |
| 6. Ukrainian SSR    | 16. Uzbek SSR         |
| 7. Belorussian SSR  | 17. Kirghiz SSR       |
| 8. Lithuanian SSR   | 18. Tajik SSR         |
| 9. Latvian SSR      | 19. Turkmen SSR       |
| 10. Estonian SSR    |                       |

A reduction in the birth rate is frequently related to urbanization and increased education of the population, which is a consequence of industrialization of the republics. This point is corroborated by the statistical birth rate in cities and rural areas, and also by the fact that in the republics with a large proportion of urban population the birth rate is considerably lower. An increase in the proportion of city dwellers in the population of the majority of the republics is accompanied by a reduction of the birth rate. But, for example, in Kirghizia and Moldavia the proportions of urban population in 1979 were the same (39 and 40 percent) while the birth rate in the former was 150 percent and the natural growth of the population, 220 percent of the latter. In Kazakhstan, Georgia and Belorussia the proportions of urban population are almost the same, but the birth rates differ essentially. In Armenia the proportion of urban residents is greater than in the Ukraine, Georgia, Lithuania and Moldavia, but the birth rate and the natural growth of the population are also much greater.

Obviously, in addition to the economic factor (the structure of the national economy) there are other factors that affect the rate of reproduction of the population--cultural, historical and national-psychological factors, whose influence does not disappear with a restructuring of the economy.

Under the conditions of the country's unified national economic complex, an important means of making the number of working positions correspond to the number of workers is interrayon and interrepublic redistribution of the population or migration.

The 1970 census showed that during the two preceding years (1968-1969) 13.9 million people (5.7 percent of the USSR population) changed their permanent place of residence. This number includes people who participated in interrepublic and inter-oblast resettling and also those that moved within these territorial units, including from rural areas to cities and vice versa.

Population of all union republics and economic rayons participated in the migration, but the migratory movement was not the same in them.

The population of the Far East and Eastern Siberia was distinguished by the large proportion of migrants. The proportion of migrants considerably surpassed the average union level in the population of Western Siberia, the Ural area, the Northwestern region and Kaliningradskaya Oblast. Of the 13.9 million migrants, 8.6 million (62 percent) were from the RSFSR, including 3.7 million to the eastern rayons of this republic, including the Ural area. Apparently the large proportion from the RSFSR in the migration of the population predetermines a reverse dependency between the proportions of migrants (for the two years under consideration) and the proportions of indigenous nationalities in the population of the other union republics. Kazakhstan typically has the largest proportion of migrants (8 percent), where 52.2 percent of the population are Russians, Ukrainians and Tatars. Among the Central Asian republics the largest proportional influx of migrants (5.6 percent) was in Kirghizia where the same three nonindigenous nationalities comprise 35.7 percent of the residents. In the Uzbek SSR the proportion of these nationalities was 18.3 percent, and 3.2 percent of the entire population had migrated.

The smallest proportion of nonindigenous population (3-10 percent) and also the least migratory movement was found in the Transcaucasian republic. True, here there is extensive seasonal (and not always organizational) migration of construction workers and other workers (mainly from Armenia to the eastern rayons of the RSFSR and Kazakhstan). All this causes one to suppose that in many republics it is not so much indigenous as newly arrived population that migrates.

Table 2 shows the ratio between the arrival and settling of migrants in the various rayons and republics, that is, the result of migration--the influx and outflow of population. On the whole, according to the figures of the 1970 census, the republics with the highest natural increase in population (with the exception of Armenia) had a negative migration balance. They sent part of their population to regions with a shortage of labor. In the Central Asian economic region the outflow of population during the two years under consideration amounted to 127,000 people, in Kazakhstan--22,000, in Moldavia--10,000, and in the Transcaucasian economic region--59,000 people. With a high natural growth rate of the population, Armenia had a positive migration balance--6,000 people, which can obviously be explained by the large proportion of Armenians (more than 38 percent) who live outside this republic. The influx of population into the RSFSR amounted to 176,000 people, the Ukraine--37,000, and the Baltic republics--32,000 people.

The following economic regions had a positive migration balance: the Northwestern--111,000 people, Eastern-Siberian--25,000 and the Far Eastern--113,000 people. This direction of the migration flows has generally satisfied the needs of the national economy. But, in the first place, the flows singled out above were not great enough and, in the second place, along with them there was population migration that did not correspond to national economic interests. Thus during the two years the outflow of population from the Ural area amounted to 110,000 people, and from Western Siberia--93,000 people. Only one-fourth of this outflow, 49,000 people, went to Eastern Siberia and the Far East. The Ural area and Western Siberia lost 115,000 people in exchange for population from the European part of the country, with 49,000 of them settling in the Volga area and the Northern Caucasus and 43,000 settling in the Ukraine, even though these regions did not experience serious shortage of labor resources, and 38,000 people moved from the Ural area and Western Siberia into regions of Kazakhstan and Central Asia where there was a sufficient supply of labor resources.

Between the 1959 and 1970 censuses the outflow of population from Western Siberia alone amounted to 160,000 and from Eastern Siberia--110,000 people. It is relatively skilled urban population that is moving out of Siberia. The source of augmenting the labor force for the developing business of Siberia is the Siberian rural areas, and this impedes the development of agriculture in this region [4].

The reasons for the outflow of population from Siberia, in addition to the severe climatic conditions, are: the lower actual standard of living as compared to western and southern regions, the shortage and relatively poor quality of urban housing and cultural and domestic services, the less satisfactory supply of foodstuffs, and also the narrow specialization of a number of industrial centers which do not provide work for second and third members of the families. In the accountability report of the CPSU Central Committee to the 26th Party Congress, L. I. Brezhnev



noted: "A person moves from, say, Siberia most frequently not because the climate does not suit him or because his earnings are small, but because it is more difficult there to obtain housing or to enroll a child in kindergarten, and there are not enough cultural centers." [2]

Table 2. Migration of USSR Population During 1968-1969 in % of Population (as of 15 January 1970)

Республики и экономические районы (1)	Выезд (2)	Вселение (3)	Республики и экономические районы (1)	Выезд (2)	Вселение (3)
(4) СССР	5,7	5,7	Прибалтийский (20)	5,9	6,4
(5) Российская СФСР	6,6	6,7	Литовская ССР (21)	5,8	5,8
(6) Северо-Западный	6,1	7,0	Латвийская ССР (22)	5,3	5,4
(7) Центральный	4,5	5,2	Эстонская ССР (23)	6,0	7,1
(8) Волго-Вятский	6,2	5,4	Калининградская обл. (24)	5,8	9,0
(9) Центрально-Чернозёмный	5,1	4,3	Белорусская ССР (25)	5,5	5,1
(10) Поволжский	5,9	6,1	Молдавская ССР (26)	4,5	4,2
(11) Северо-Кавказский	6,1	6,4	Закавказский район (27)	2,3	1,9
(12) Уральский	7,7	7,0	Грузинская ССР (28)	2,7	1,9
(13) Западно-Сибирский	9,1	8,3	Азербайджанская ССР (29)	2,2	1,7
(14) Восточно-Сибирский	10,3	10,6	Армянская ССР (30)	2,0	2,3
(15) Дальневосточный	12,1	14,2	Казахская ССР (31)	8,0	7,9
(16) Украинская ССР	4,6	4,7	Среднеазиатский (32)	3,7	3,1
(17) Донецко-Приднепровский	4,7	4,9	Узбекская ССР (33)	3,2	2,5
(18) Юго-Западный	4,3	3,7	Киргизская ССР (34)	5,6	4,7
(19) Южный	5,6	7,2	Таджикская ССР (35)	4,3	3,6
			Туркменская ССР (36)	2,4	2,9

Key:

- |                                     |                             |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Republics and economic districts | 20. Baltic                  |
| 2. Emigration                       | 21. Lithuanian SSR          |
| 3. Settlement                       | 22. Latvian SSR             |
| 4. USSR                             | 23. Estonian SSR            |
| 5. RSFSR                            | 24. Kaliningradskaya Oblast |
| 6. Northwestern                     | 25. Belorussian SSR         |
| 7. Central                          | 26. Moldavian SSR           |
| 8. Volga-Vyatka                     | 27. Transcaucasian District |
| 9. Central-Chernozem                | 28. Georgian SSR            |
| 10. Volga Area                      | 29. Azerbaijanian SSR       |
| 11. Northern Caucasian              | 30. Armenian SSR            |
| 12. Ural                            | 31. Kazakh SSR              |
| 13. Western-Siberian                | 32. Central Asian District  |
| 14. Eastern Siberian                | 33. Uzbek SSR               |
| 15. Far Eastern                     | 34. Kirghiz SSR             |
| 16. Ukrainian SSR                   | 35. Tajik SSR               |
| 17. Donetsk-Dnepr Area              | 36. Turkmen SSR             |
| 18. Southwestern                    |                             |
| 19. Southern                        |                             |

The above-noted less mobility of the indigenous population of the republics which have high population growth is caused not only by the redistribution of labor resources outside the republic, but also by the staffing of local industrial personnel. The Tajik SSR is typical in this respect. During 1970-1977 only ten percent



of the natural increase of the rural population moved to the cities of Tajikistan, and 90 percent remained in rural areas. During this same period the proportion of rural residents in the population of the USSR decreased from 44 to 38 percent, while in the Tajik SSR it increased from 63 to 65 percent. Of the overall number of people who came to the cities of Tajikistan in 1970-1977, only 20 percent came from rural areas of the republic. The absolute number of people within the republic who move from rural areas to the cities has also tended to decrease in recent years. The mechanical growth of the population in cities has taken place mainly because of migrants from other republics.

Apparently the constantly rising standard of living of the rural population, whose material basis is the production of cotton and other heat-loving crops, and the improvement of cultural and domestic conditions in rural areas create economic incentives for youths to remain in rural areas. The slight migration of older rural residents to the cities is related to their relatively low general educational level and poor occupational training for work in nonagricultural branches, and also to the large number of children they have (an average of 6.6). The latter circumstance creates additional difficulties in providing the family with urban dwellings and children's preschool institutions. In 1978 for each urban resident of the republic there were only 9.4 square meters of useable space as compared to 12.6 square meters which is the average for the country. The number of children in permanent preschool institutions during 1965-1977 increased by 83 percent, but these institutions accommodated only 34.1 percent of the children in the cities and 11.6 percent in the republic as a whole.

Until recently the industry of Tajikistan was concentrated mainly in two cities, Dushanbe and Leninabad, in which 16 percent of the republic's population and 56 percent of the industrial personnel were concentrated. When rural residents move to these large cities they experience a significant change in housing and domestic conditions which they do not always find acceptable. As a result, while there is a reserve of labor force in the rural areas of this republic, it is a complicated problem to provide industrial branches with labor force. The majority of enterprises in industry, construction and other industrial branches are experiencing a shortage of working personnel, especially skilled workers. This is mitigated somewhat by the influx of migrants, but even this influx is relatively small (during 1973-1977 this automatic increase comprised only 4.4 percent of the total population growth).

Yet in rural areas and in small and medium-sized cities and rayon centers, where the majority of the indigenous population live, the level of industrial development is very low and, consequently, they do not have the corresponding working positions. Moreover, branches of the sphere of services are still poorly developed here. Thus not only is the republic's rural population not ready to move to the cities, but the cities are not ready to receive them either.

While taking note of this circumstance, it is still necessary to focus attention on the general educational and occupational preparation of rural youth for industrial labor. At the present time the vocational and technical schools that are located in small and medium-sized cities, rayon centers and rural areas either train no personnel for industry and construction at all or train an insignificant number of them. Therefore rural youth, especially girls, are not a fully valuable

source of labor resources for nonagricultural branches. In 1978 the day secondary schools of Tajikistan graduated 65,100 people. Of these 17,600 entered day divisions of higher and secondary specialized training institutions and 14,700 entered vocational and technical schools; 32,800 graduates of secondary schools either went to work without a specific occupation or ended up outside public production.

Finally, one must note that the resettlement of rural residents of indigenous nationalities in the cities is also impeded by their poor knowledge of the Russian language which is the language of international communication here.

These problems regarding the utilization of rural labor resources in industrial branches are typical of other republics of Central Asia as well.

In Georgia and Azerbaijan, urban residents comprise more than half, and in Armenia—two-thirds of the total population. The difficulties involved in moving to the cities have been surmounted to a significant degree, but the problems involved in utilizing rural labor resources of individual zones remain here too. In this respect the situation that has arisen in the Georgian SSR is of interest. As one sees from Table 1, in terms of the rates of natural growth of the population this republic is presently closer to the RSFSR and Belorussia than to its Transcaucasian neighbors. But under the conditions of the decreasing birth rate, the growth of labor resources has taken place more rapidly than the growth of population. Under the Ninth Five-Year Plan the population of the Georgian SSR increased by 4.8 percent and the number of labor resources increased by 12.3 percent, and under the Tenth Five-Year Plan these figures were 6.1 and 9.4 percent, respectively. The proportion of labor resources in the republic's population was 53.2 percent in 1965 and approximately 58 percent in 1980 [5]. Since the migratory mobility of the population of the Transcaucasian area in general and of Georgia in particular is low, and the republic's industry is concentrated in a few large cities (Tbilisi, Kutaisi, Rustavi, Gori, and others) providing working positions for the rural population which comprises almost half (48 percent) of the total population also involves solving a number of problems that are similar to those that exist in the Central Asian republics.

The incomplete accounting for territorial differences in the rates of natural growth of labor resources and small migratory mobility of the population of a number of republics cause a number of disproportions and losses in the practice of planning the national economy and reduce the economic and social effectiveness of socialist production. There arises a lack of correspondence between the number of working positions and the number of workers, which impedes complete utilization of both.

Under the Tenth Five-Year Plan there was a shortage of working personnel in industry and in other industrial branches of practically all republics, economic regions and in the majority of industrial centers. This resulted in a reduction in the coefficient of shift work of equipment and the existence of unfilled working positions.

It must be noted that in many cases the shortage of labor force cannot be considered absolute as it is brought about not so much by a complete shortage of working personnel everywhere as by the irregular operation of enterprises. Frequently up

to three-fourths of the output of industrial enterprises is produced in the second half of the month [6]. In these cases the losses of working time comprise one-third of the supply of it. These losses are apparently less in industry as a whole. For example, the press has evaluated these losses in the amount of 10-12 percent [7]. The main reasons for these losses are the incomplete balance of the economy, the existence of excess (with respect to labor resources), working positions, and violations of branch proportions which lead to interruptions in material and technical supply. When the economy is balanced the shortage of labor force will be fully or partially eliminated. But so far this shortage exists and causes considerable harm to the national economy.

At the same time in republics with adequate labor resources, especially in their rural areas, there are large amounts of labor resources that are not utilized in public production. In Tajikistan during 1970-1978 the average annual increase in labor resources amounted to approximately 60,000 people, but the increase in the number employed in organized social production and training with leave from production was 43,000-44,000, and 16,000-17,000 people who reached working age annually joined those employed in household work and private subsidiary work. The proportion of people employed in this sphere of labor in Tajik SSR is 2.5 times greater than the average for the republic. During 1971-1978 the proportion of people employed in organized social production decreased by 4.5 points and amounted to 67 percent in 1978. A similar situation is typical of other republics of Central Asia and Transcaucasia.

The following proportions of people were engaged in private subsidiary farming and household work: in the Azerbaijan SSR in 1976--22 percent of the labor resources, and in agricultural regions (outside the Apsheronskaya industrial zone and Kirovabad)--from 34 to 38 percent; in the Georgian SSR in 1978--15.9 percent of all the employed population, and in small cities and regions with poorly developed industry, especially in the mountain and foothill zones--up to 23 percent. In 1978 women comprised 51 percent of the workers and employees of the USSR, 54 percent in Latvia and Estonia, 53 percent in the RSFSR and Belorussia, 43 percent in Azerbaijan and Uzbekistan, 40 percent in Turkmenia and 39 percent in Tajikistan. Consequently, in the southern republics with adequate labor supply a considerable proportion (up to 20-25 percent) of the women from families of workers and employees are engaged in private subsidiary or household work. This proportion is undoubtedly higher among female kolkhoz workers.

As we know, the most general expression of the results of socialist production is the volume of produced national income. True, for "open" economies of certain republics and rayons this indicator can not be considered as representative as for the "closed" (balanced) national economy of the country. As a result of inter-regional redistribution, the produced national income of the republic, expressed by the sum of the net output of the branches, can be more or less than the sum of the incomes of the state and cooperative enterprises and the population that comprise the consumed national income. Nonetheless the volume of produced national income (the sum of the net output of the branches of material production) per capita can characterize more or less precisely the level of the republic's economic development.



Indicators of the growth rates of the national income in the various union republics are published in the statistical annuals of the USSR Central Statistical Administration. The ratios between the indices of growth of the national income and the indices of growth of the population give the indices of the growth of the production of the per capita national income.

One can see from Table 3 that in all union republics the growth rates of the national income outstrip the growth rates of the population. Other conditions being equal, the growth rates of the per capita produced national income are higher in republics where the birth rate is lower and lower where this level is higher. Of the latter, only Armenia, where the production of the national income has increased 5-fold during the past 20 years (in the USSR as a whole it increased 3.64-fold) was the per capita growth at the unionwide level (2.89-fold). The lowest growth rates of the per capita national income were found in Turkmenia.

A differentiation of growth rates of the national income in the various republics is natural and inevitable. But it can be conditioned by various factors, particularly the level of development that is achieved up to the period under consideration, the peculiarities of the structure of the economy, growth rates of the republic's population and so forth. Differences in the growth rates of the national income can contribute to equalizing the levels of economic development of the republic. For example, because of its high growth rates, the Belorussian SSR, whose economy was destroyed by the war, was able to catch up with other republics economically. Yet the fact that the growth rates of the national income in the Ukraine are somewhat lower than in the USSR as a whole can hardly cause concern since this is one of the most economically developed republics.

The situation is different in the republics of Central Asia, Kazakhstan and Azerbaijan. By the beginning of the period under consideration (1958) the level of their economic development had not surpassed the union level. Therefore the lower growth rates of the produced national income here reflect not further equalization of the level of economic development of the republics, but their further differentiation which is brought about by the large growth of population and a kind of "demographic explosion" in these republics.

Under the conditions of socialist distribution of labor, regional differences in the composition of families, naturally, also predetermine a difference in the incomes per family member. The latter are partially eliminated through public consumption funds (free services, stipends), but they cannot be completely eliminated. Additionally, the large amount of employment in private subsidiary farming and the relatively high effectiveness of this work in some southern republics (orchard growing, vegetable growing and so forth) makes the proportion of income from private subsidiary farming higher in the budgets of local, especially rural, population than it is in the USSR as a whole. This can hardly have a favorable influence on the socio-economic development of the corresponding regions.

In order to equalize the levels of economic development, republics with high growth rates of population should have higher rates of increase in the productivity of public labor than those in the USSR as a whole. This predetermines large changes in the branch structure of these economies, primarily accelerated development of industry, as happened in the Armenian SSR where the proportion of industry in the



production of the national income is higher than in the USSR as a whole. These peculiarities of labor resources in republics with sufficient labor show that for the majority of them this direction of development is practically impossible in the near future. Therefore in the current five-year period one cannot speak of equalizing the production of the per capita national income, but of fuller and more efficient utilization of labor resources of all republics and rayons in public production. Under the conditions of the country's unified national economic complex this problem can be solved only according to a unified program which embraces all economic regions. Unless the shortage of labor force is eliminated in the main regions of the European part of the country, population will continue to flow into here from Siberia and other eastern regions of the RSFSR. If there is not an essential improvement in the living conditions in Siberia, some of its population will be forced not only to the European part of the USSR, but also to Kazakhstan and Central Asia, thus impeding the enlistment of the indigenous population in industrial branches.

In the main regions of the European part of the USSR, where there is a multifaceted complex of branches of the national economy and the population is sufficiently mobile, the shortage of labor force can be eliminated with a changeover to the intensive type of reproduction. This presupposes the achievement of balanced development of the economy, particularly the limitation of the number of newly created working positions to the amount of labor resources, proportional development of interrelated branches of industry and, on the basis of this, elimination of interruptions in material and technical supply. The latter will relieve the enterprises of the need to maintain hidden reserves of labor force to fulfill the plan in the last days of the month and will make it possible to redistribute them to places where there really is a shortage of workers, including to the eastern regions of the RSFSR. A prerequisite for this redistribution, in our opinion, should be relieving the enterprises of the obligation to find positions for released workers, which is hardly appropriate when there is a shortage of labor resources in the country.

A changeover to the intensive type of reproduction will be a most important factor in reducing the demand for labor force in the eastern regions of the RSFSR as well. But the need to assimilate new natural resources and economically structure new territories makes the utilization of extensive factors of development inevitable here, including enlisting additional labor resources. A necessary condition for curtailing the outflow of population from the eastern regions of the RSFSR is an essential rise in the standard of living. This condition was taken into account in the Main Directions for the Economic and Social Development of the USSR During 1981-1985 and the Period up to 1990. In his report to the 26th CPSU Congress, L. I. Brezhnev noted: "... we plan under the current five-year plan to carry out housing construction and the entire socio-cultural complex at more rapid rates in these regions, and to improve the supply that are in mass demand to the population." [2] It is also necessary to make the economies of Siberia and the Far East more comprehensive and to develop branches that utilize primarily the labor of women and youth who have a secondary education.

In addition to intensive factors of economic development, republics with adequate labor supplies can and should more fully utilize extensive ones, primarily enlisting additional labor resources into public production.

Table 3. Growth Rates of Population and National Income in Various Union Republics From 1958 Through 1978\*

Республики (1)	Население на начало года в % к 1959 г. (данные переписей) (2)		(3) Национальный доход в сопоставимых ценах		(5) на душу населения		(7) отношение к среднесоюзным темпам роста	
			всего в % к 1958 г. (4)		в % к 1958 г. (6)		(7)	
			1969 г.	1978 г.	1969 г.	1978 г.	1969 г.	1978 г.
	1970 г.	1979 г.						
(8) СССР	116	126	212	364	174	289	1,00	1,00
(9) Российская СФСР	111	117	209	364	189	311	1,09	1,16
(10) Украинская ССР	113	119	204	310	181	260	1,04	0,90
(11) Белорусская ССР	112	118	258	496	230	420	1,32	1,18
(12) Литовская ССР	116	125	274	429	236	344	1,34	1,18
(13) Латвийская ССР	113	122	225	360	199	296	1,14	1,02
(14) Эстонская ССР	119	122	239	290	201	312	1,16	1,08
(15) Молдавская ССР	123	136	238	353	193	260	1,06	0,90
(16) Грузинская ССР	111	124	188	334	100	274	0,97	0,95
(17) Азербайджанская ССР	138	163	178	352	129	218	0,74	0,75
(18) Армянская ССР	143	174	252	503	176	289	1,01	1,00
(19) Казахская ССР	140	158	228	342	163	216	0,94	0,75
(20) Узбекская ССР	145	189	199	368	138	195	0,79	0,68
(21) Киргизская ССР	142	171	228	352	160	206	0,92	0,71
(22) Таджикская ССР	146	192	224	372	153	195	0,88	0,68
(23) Туркменская ССР	142	183	164	254	115	139	0,65	0,48

\*Calculated from data of NARODNOYE KHOZYAYSTVO SSSR statistical annuals for the corresponding years.

Key:

1. Republics
2. Population at beginning of year in % of 1959 (census data)
3. National income in comparable prices
4. Total in % of 1958
5. Per capita
6. in % of 1958
7. Ratio to average union growth rates
8. USSR
9. RSFSR
10. Ukrainian SSR
11. Belorussian SSR
13. Latvian SSR
14. Estonian SSR
15. Moldavian SSR
16. Georgian SSR
17. Azerbaijanian SSR
18. Armenian SSR
19. Kazakh SSR
20. Uzbek SSR
21. Kirghiz SSR
22. Tajik SSR
23. Turkmen SSR

Southern regions of the country, as a rule, are distinguished by favorable--in a number of cases, unique in the USSR--conditions for cultivating heat-loving industrial and food crops, and their rural population has a large amount of experience in handling the corresponding branches of agriculture. Obviously, agriculture should be developed as extensively here as land and water resources allow.

For example, Tajikistan is currently continuing to assimilate new land on which cotton and orchard-vegetable sovkhozes are being created. Vegetable growing, grape growing and citrus fruit growing are as labor-intensive as cotton growing is, and the expansion of the areas planted in orchards and vineyards on nonirrigated land and also the creation of fattening complexes for young large horned cattle make it possible to employ a considerable number of workers.

The experience of a number of kolkhozes of the republic demonstrates the real possibility of creating a total of 320,000 hectares of orchards and vineyards on non-irrigated land in Tajikistan. Their products can supply, specifically, the population of Siberia, the Far East and the North, which will contribute to improving the living conditions in the eastern zone of the RSFSR.

It should be noted that under the conditions of Tajikistan fruit and grape growing are much more effective than grain farming in all respects. The yield from grain crops amounts to 8-10 quintals per hectare here, with the expenditure of an average of 13 man-hours of labor per one quintal (the average is 1.0-1.2 man-hours for the USSR as a whole). The yield of grapes in the fourth year of bearing reaches 90-95 quintals with labor expenditures of 36.4 man-hours per one quintal (the Fakhrrabad sovkhoz). The value of the yield of grapes from one hectare is dozens of times greater than the value of the grain yield, and labor expenditures per one hectare of vineyard are 23 times greater than for one hectare of grain fields.

But the possibilities of assimilating new land and supplying water for them are limited in the republics of Central Asia. In the process of the mechanization of labor a large amount of labor force presently employed in manual labor will be released from agriculture. Therefore the possibilities of enlisting additional workers in this branch are not great. According to calculations of the Council for Study of Productive Resources of the Academy of Sciences of the Tajik SSR, during 1978-1985 the increase of individuals employed in the republic's agriculture can be no more than 65,000, and the proportion of this branch in the overall number of employed workers in the national economy will decrease from 36.3 percent in 1977 to 31.2 percent in 1985. Therefore in the future no less than half of the increase in labor resources in rural areas of Tajikistan must go into industrial branches and the nonproduction sphere. At the present time 15.5 percent of all people employed in public production in the Tajik SSR are employed in industry (in the USSR this figure is about 30 percent), but this branch produces 54.5 percent of the gross social product and two-fifths of the republic's national income. Further enlistment of labor resources in industry will contribute to a rise in the level of economic development of all republics with adequate labor resources. But still one must solve a number of difficult problems related to the development of industry itself.



The effective natural resources of the Central Asian and Transcaucasian republics have long attracted the attention of the country's planning and economic agencies. The branches of industry that arise on the basis of these resources frequently become the branches in which the republics specialize. Under the conditions of the reduced growth of labor resources in the country, the labor resources of the aforementioned republics can play a similar structure forming role.

Thus the abundance of hydroelectric power resources in the Tajik SSR predetermines the development of a complex of energy-intensive nonferrous metallurgy and chemical industries here. The large supply of labor resources in the republic makes it expedient also to develop branches of the processing industry which are labor-intensive but not capital-intensive so that, with minimal capital investments, they can create a maximum number of working positions. The traditionally labor-intensive industries included in the republic's agro-industrial complex include the pulp and paper, sewing, knitting, rug, leather-footwear, fruit and vegetable, canning, wine making and oil and fat industries. They employ 32.0 percent of the industrial personnel and produce 26 percent of the republic's gross industrial output. There are favorable natural and climatic conditions for the development of a raw material base for the aforementioned branches, but in terms of the per capita production of these products, Tajikistan is at the union level at best, and frequently below it. Further development of the aforementioned branches of industry in the near future is one of the most realistic ways of enlisting labor resources into industrial branches.

As the indigenous population acquires experience in industrial labor and local workers acquire skills it becomes possible for the republic to produce more complicated kinds of industrial products, including machine building products. One of the prerequisites for this is universal secondary education of youth and the training of skilled workers through the system of vocational and technical education. The Main Directions for the Economic and Social Development of the USSR During 1931-1985 and the Period up to 1990 envisions expanding the "training of skilled workers from the local population, especially rural youth." These personnel could be used primarily in assembly enterprises of the electrical equipment, radio equipment, and instrument building industries. The fact that these branches typically divide the production of complicated products into the simplest operations opens up the possibility of rapidly training personnel. Subsequently as local personnel becomes skilled, there will be a natural changeover to a fuller production cycle in these and similar branches.

Experience shows that further concentration of industry in a few large cities of republics with adequate labor resources leads to making the overall shortage of labor force more critical and does not make it possible to utilize labor resources of small and medium-sized cities and nearby rural communities. Thus the construction of a large textile combine in Dushanbe did not justify the hopes of enlisting the local female labor resource in the textile industry. The reserves for drawing women away from housework in this large city turned out to be almost exhausted since the vocational training of women of indigenous nationalities is inadequate and their large numbers of children makes it impossible for them to work at night. It became necessary to enlist labor force from other cities of the country for the combine. But more than half of those that were brought in were released before they had worked a year.



In order to utilize local labor resources it is expedient to locate in small urban settlements, rayon centers and large villages narrowly specialized medium-sized and small enterprises and also branches and shops of large enterprises and associations that produce sewing, textile, knitting, rug, furniture and other products. The economic and social effectiveness of this distribution in the Tajik SSR has been proved, for example, by the experience of the Dilorom and Guldest industrial associations, the sewing association imeni 50-letiya SSSR, and the association of the pulp and paper industry in the city of Dushanbe. The creation of these shops and branches in small cities made it possible to reduce capital investments for the creation of a working position and to enlist in industry the immobile part of the population, including women with many children, as well as to increase the number of the working class in rural areas. The branches and shops of large enterprises in rural areas do not experience a shortage of labor force, and the products they produce are in great demand among the population.

The orientation toward rural labor resources does not, of course, preclude the creation of a construction base, ramified transportation communications and larger enterprises in individual small and medium-sized cities that have the necessary construction areas. Such cities can become, in particular, centers for group distribution of textile enterprises in the form of specialized productions that cooperate among themselves (spinning, knitting, finishing and dyeing).

In addition to industry, there are great possibilities for increasing the employment of labor resources in construction, transportation, trade, public catering and all branches of the nonproduction sphere. Thus the development of public catering and the sphere of consumer services, where labor productivity is 3-5 times greater than in the performance of the corresponding work at home, is an important condition for drawing women away from housekeeping and into public production. It should be noted that in terms of the level of provision of the population with services from these branches, Tajikistan and other Central Asian republics are below the average union indicators.

As was already noted, the experience of the Georgian SSR shows that under the conditions of declining population growth and inadequate mobility of rural residents, problems of utilizing rural labor resources remain. In this republic industry's proportion of the production of national income at existing prices amounted to 42.0 percent in 1978 (that is, more than in the Tajik SSR) and that of agriculture was 30.9 percent, while for the USSR as a whole the proportions of these branches were 51.2 percent and 17.4 percent, respectively, in the Azerbaijan SSR—47.6 and 25.2 percent, and in the Armenian SSR—57.8 and 50.7 percent. Agriculture's large proportion of the Georgian national income is explained partially by the exceptionally favorable climatic conditions for the cultivation of labor-intensive and heat-loving crops (grapes, tea, citrus fruits and so forth). But these crops are raised in the low lying parts of the country which occupy only one-third of its territory. In order to utilize existing labor resources of mountainous and foothill zones, it is also necessary to create small, narrowly specialized enterprises, shops and branches of large associations in small cities and large villages. Georgia has a certain amount of experience in developing machine building, especially the electrical equipment and instrument building industries, and these branches, along with other labor-intensive industries, can participate in the utilization of rural labor resources in the near future.

It is known that, other conditions being equal, large industry, as a rule, is more effective than small industry, and the distribution of industrial enterprises in the existing industrial centers and large cities is more advantageous than in small cities or villages. Therefore from the standpoint of branch efficiency, the movement of industry to rural labor resources can appear disadvantageous, even though it is necessary from the national economic standpoint.

It should be noted that this kind of problem is not new for industry.

Analyzing the distribution of Russia's large industry at the turn of the century, V. I. Lenin wrote: ". . . factory industry apparently has a tendency to move especially rapidly outside the cities, to create new factory centers and to advance them more rapidly than city ones, to hide in out-of-the-way villages which appear to be separated from the world of large enterprises . . . ." "The movement of factories into the villages shows that capitalism surmounts those obstacles which the closed nature of the traditional peasant community raises for it, and even gains advantage from this closedness. If the construction of factories in villages causes certain inconveniences, it also provides for inexpensive labor. The peasant cannot be sent to the factory,—the factory goes to the peasant." [1]

Of course, under socialism, with equal payment for equal labor in all republics, the motive of "inexpensive" labor disappears. But the motive of simply enlisting additional labor in public production remains. There is no one to replace this potential worker who lives in the small city or the village of a republic with adequate labor resources, and because of the factors presented above it is not possible to motivate him (her) to move to a large city, not to mention a different republic. Just as "for petroleum, gas, coal, and ore we are now moving farther to the east and north" [3], thus making large additional expenditures, because of the important socio-noneconomic task of fuller utilization of the country's labor resources it will be necessary to bring several branches of industry to the immobile labor resources of the republics that are supplied with labor, even if this involves additional expenditures.

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## LABOR

### TRADE UNION, SOVIET COOPERATE TO IMPROVE INFRASTRUCTURE

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[Article by V. Kulagin, special correspondent of IZVESTIYA in Chimgentskaya Oblast: "Cooperation: An Account of Joint Work of the Council of People's Deputies and Trade Union Organizations in the Town of Kentau for the Realization of the Plans for Socio-Economic Development]

[Text] From Chimgent to Kentau I went by car. On both sides of the road irrigation ditches murmured, cotton fields turned green, a brisk trade in aromatic melons was taking place at the bus stops. And although fall was approaching according to all the signs, the sun burned mercilessly as usual, as if to remind the visitor that he is in Southern Kazakhstan, a land of hot deserts.

Amidst the sun-scorched steppe in the foothills of the stern Karatau the young mining town stretched out in an enormous green oasis. Almost two decades ago, Mukhtar Auezov called it a beautiful crown of the black mountains. Since that time Kentau has become even more beautiful. The Achisayskiy Polymetal Combine gave life to the young town. The first builders of the Achisayskiy mine lived in yourtas and tents, open to all the winds of the shelterless desert. But now Kentau is one of the best-built towns with all amenities in Kazakhstan. Here there is an average of 60 square meters of green plantations for every inhabitant. For many years the only powerful enterprise of the town was the Achisayskiy Polymetal Combine--Achpolimetall. But as time passed there appeared large plants for the production of excavators and transformers, a sewing and knitted-goods factory and construction trusts. "And the town literally before one's eyes began to disintegrate into departmental cells," the first gorkom secretary, N. Kabirov, recalls. Meanwhile, with the creation of new work collectives, social problems and problems of everyday life appeared in greater relief. At first every large enterprise attempted to solve them alone. Something turned out well, but on the whole departmental isolation increasingly entered into contradiction with the urgent requirements of the townspeople.

The sphere of services fell behind, many problems arose in the organization of public services and amenities in the new housing blocks; waiting lists developed in the kindergartens and day nurseries; many unfavorable criticisms were directed toward the municipal service. Of course, stormy sessions were held on all these questions in the ispolkom, with the directors of the enterprises being invited.



All acknowledged the necessity of unified efforts, but in practice this did not happen.

And here the gorkom recommended to the ispolkom to work out and examine at a session of the town Soviet of People's Deputies a comprehensive plan for the socio-economic development of the town. It was precisely this plan (by the way, one of the first in the republic) which became the connecting link between the town Soviet and the trade union committees. In the elaboration of the plan participated about 400 deputies of the town Soviet, more than 20,000 members of the trade union, the directors of all enterprises, organizations and institutions of the town. Numerous instructions of the voters were taken into account.

After confirmation of the plan at a session of the Soviet, the ispolkom took its implementation under strict control. Every week a detailed analysis of the course of construction or renovation of housing, social and domestic service and cultural projects was undertaken at the deputies of the chairman of the gorispolkom with the participation of the chairmen of the ispolkoms of the settlement Soviets, production deputy groups, trade union activists and economic executives. Once a month the ispolkom published a bulletin, showing the concrete contribution of every production collective to the development of the town.

In the process of this great undertaking, the collaboration of all enterprises and organizations of the town grew stronger, their cooperation began to click. Now there were, of course, more people at the sessions of the town Soviet. The chairmen of the trade union committees came with their counter-proposals concerning the cooperation of means and labor resources in the solution of town-wide problems.

"Of course, there were arguments and complaints," the chairman of the gorispolkom, A. Sembekov, recounted. "But it was not longer narrowly departmental, but general interests which gained the upper hand."

The fruits of the joint work of the local Soviets and the trade union organizations are visible in Kentau literally at every step. During the past year alone, by virtue of the cooperation of the means of the enterprises, more than 1.5 million rubles were spent for municipal needs. This is notwithstanding that together with the workers' settlements a little over 70,000 people live in the town. And it was not at all accidental that I saw a general plan of the town in the studies of both the chairman of the gorispolkom and the director of Achpolimetal, S. Maulenkulov.

"Of course, our combine has contributed and contributes the principal share of means for the development of the town," said Sakh Maulenkulovich. "But now we have had a sensation of the importance of not only, let us say, a unified policy for the building of the town, but also the unity of the efforts of the people's deputies, trade union and Komsomol organizations, and economic managers in the solution of the problem of labor resources."

"You know, by improving the everyday life and cultural services to the population, creating comfort in the houses and around them, opening up new kindergartens and day nurseries, schools and hospitals, we strengthen our cadres in the town. And this is, above all, why the trade union committees and economic directors respond

with great interest to every decision of the ispolkom aimed at the improvement of the social and domestic services infrastructure of the town. And if earlier the gorispolkom invited the representative of the trade union committee to discuss, for example, the question of the further enlargement of the zone of rest, now it is the chairman of the trade union committee himself who hurries to the ispolkom with a request for help in finding a hectare—another one in the vicinity of vacation guest houses."

Without exaggeration one can say that Kentau now has the lowest turnover of cadres not only in Chirchenskaya oblast, but in the republic. And, you know, there was a time when even experienced workers left the mines.

The permanent commissions of the town soviet, together with the housing and domestic services commission of the trade union committee of the combine, regularly organize public inspections of the conditions of work and everyday life, the sanitary and cultural services to the miners.

In a year and a half several of such inspections have been carried out, in which more than 2,000 deputies, trade union activists, and people's controllers took part. As a result, the work of the workers' cafeterias improved, dietetic tables appeared. For women hygiene rooms have been opened at the enterprises, beauty shops, stands taking orders for the sewing of clothes, washing and laundering of underwear. Those who wished obtained the possibility of purchasing semimanufactures right after their shift, as well as culinary and confectionery articles. Repairs were made in the workers' dormitories, where there is new furniture now, the reading rooms and recreation rooms have been equipped. All children's institutions and workers' cafeterias have begun to be supplied with fresh vegetables the year round from the hothouses of the subsidiary farm of the enterprise.

Such public inspections of the conditions of work and everyday life have taken place in other enterprises of the town. The ispolkom has carefully analyzed the results of the inspections and, together with the trade union committee of the enterprises, has exercised strict control so as to ensure that the means for the social development of the enterprises are spent as designated, in full volume and within the established time frame. And this has brought good results.

During the past five-year-plan, five kindergartens and day-nurseries, instead of three called for by the plan, have been built, including one at the expense of the profits of enterprises. A new dormitory has appeared, the rest zone at Lake Kzyl-Kul' has been expanded, the construction of a municipal hospital has begun. A new hotel of the combine has been built, and the previous one has been turned over to a children's polyclinic. During these same years construction on a sewing and knitted-goods factory has begun, alleviating to a large extent the problem of employment for women.

"After such a harmonious, well-thought-out approach to the social problems and problems of everyday life of the town," the chairman of the trade union committee of Achpolimetall, R. Tushminskiy, related, "we felt that our tasks all of a sudden became consolidated."

At the beginning of last year, the permanent commissions of the Soviet checked on the observance of labor discipline in the industrial enterprises of the town. Then this question was reviewed at a session of the town Soviet of People's Deputies. A conversation on points of principle took place. The decision of the Soviet was discussed at sessions of the production deputy groups and in the trade union committees. Concrete measures were mapped out for lowering the idle time of equipment, for strengthening control over truants. Now the enterprises have experienced a significant decrease in the number of people not turning up for work without good reasons. There has been an increase in the output of fixed capital. During the past year the industrial enterprises of the town worked for two days and nights on economized raw material and materials, production valued at more than 3 million rubles was turned out over and above the plan.

The many-sided links of the local organs of authority and the trade union organizations of Kentau encompass now practically all aspects of the life of the townspeople. Commissions created jointly with the trade unions for the safety of housing, for the control of the observation of Soviet trade regulations, for the distribution of products in increased demand, are successfully working in the gorispolkom. There is broad representation of the trade union committees of the enterprises in the town building council attached to the department of construction and architecture of the gorispolkom. With the active participation of the trade union organizations in the town, there is a "dayroff" staff in operation, a passport for exploring the culture of the town has been compiled.

. . . . We walked through Kentau during the evening. Above us mighty southern acacias, elms and mulberry trees closed like a tent. From the lawns came the fragrance of tea roses. From the parks of the miners music could be heard. The windows of a cafe for young people were illuminated with colored lights. And in the distance beyond the town the signal lamps of the pile-driver of the Glubokaya Mine burned as a symbol of the miners' fame. The town toiled, rested, and again got ready for a work shift.

8970

CSO: 1800/862

## LABOR

### RAISING ESTONIAN WORKER QUALIFICATIONS

Tallinn SOVETSKAYA ESTONIYA in Russian 30 Jul 81 p 3

[Article by Ya. Tedder, chief of the Administration for Production Personnel Training and Advanced Training of the Estonian SSR State Committee for Labor: "A High Level of Skills for the Worker"]

[Text] Job placement office notices quite frequently read: "Wanted, fitters and turners of the fourth and fifth categories, drivers of the first and second classes, electricians of the fifth category, smiths of the sixth category...." The list includes virtually all worker professions. But let us think for a moment--where are these highly skilled masters of their trade supposed to come from? In most cases they come (or, more precisely, move) from other enterprises in Tallinn.

At the November (1978) CPSU Central Committee Plenum, speakers were already stressing that more attention would have to be paid in the early 1980's to economic intensification because other factors were diminishing dramatically, especially the possibility of enlisting the aid of new labor resources.

Now the time has come to deal with problems in the training of specialists and skilled workers and raising the educational level of personnel. These objectives were set in the basic guidelines for the development of our country in 1981-1985 and the period up to 1990.

In the last 5 years around 200,000 new workers were trained in the republic, and more than 80 percent of them were trained directly on the job. For this purpose, our enterprises offer more than 900 theoretical training classes, with over 30,000 workers attending these classes. Only a few isolated ministries and enterprises have shops, courses and academic training facilities for practical training, however.

Only half of the republic ministries and departments and less than a third of the enterprises of union jurisdiction have been equipped with academic-production bases in accordance with the recommendations of the USSR State Committee for Labor and Social Problems--50 academic slots (2 classes) for 1,000 workers. This, unfortunately, is the "baggage" we have carried into the 11th Five-Year Plan.

The majority of ministries, state committees, departments and enterprises have made a significant effort to implement the decree of the CPSU Central Committee



and USSR Council of Ministers "On Measures for the Further Improvement of Worker Training and Advanced Training." For example, the republic Ministry of Motor Transport and Highways now has 57 well-equipped classrooms for 1,000 workers, 82 percent of all new workers undergo specially organized training courses, and the amount of time required for the advanced training of workers is constantly being reduced. In the last 5-year period, the republic Ministry of Meat and Dairy Industry built an excellent academic combine, which constantly overfulfills the plan for the training of new workers and has reduced the amount of time required for advanced training by almost two-thirds.

The Main Production Administration for Power Engineering and Electrification also has an academic-production base: The academic combine has branches at virtually all Estonenergo enterprises and academic facilities for practical training (one of these is in Tallinn). The amount of time required for the retraining of workers is 3.4 years here, instead of the standard 5 years.

At the same time, the Vol'ta Plant has only one training class, and the Tallinn Experimental Jewelry Plant and the chemical-pharmaceutical plant have no place at all where workers can increase their knowledge. The situation is slightly better at the Plant imeni M. I. Kalinin and enterprises of the Estonian SSR Ministry of Forestry. The workers of this ministry and these enterprises undergo advanced training once every 10 years at most.

Some managers have never gone beyond solving this problem only on paper: If we could get along before, they reason, we will get along in the future. Recently, for example, the Estonian SSR State Committee for Labor checked the state of vocational training in the Estonian Shipping Line. It learned that the reports contain "pretty" figures, but the training and advanced training of workers were scattered among many production links and there was no single system for the management of these undertakings.

The time has come for ministries, departments and enterprise collectives to take a discerning look at past accomplishments and determine specific ways of eliminating shortcomings. This is stipulated in the joint decree of the AUCCTU Presidium, the State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education and the State Committee for Labor and Social Problems of the USSR on the unionwide inspection of worker training in the production process during 1981-1985.

8588

CSO: 1800/2

## LABOR

### YOUTH TRAINING BASIS FOR SOLVING SERVICE INDUSTRY PROBLEMS

Tallinn RAHVA HAAL in Estonian 4 Jun 81 p 2

[Article by Valter Raudik, department chief of the Service Ministry of the Estonian SSR: "Toward the Education of Young Service Personnel"]

[Text] The standard of service at the reception point, in the shop, or the atelier is primarily dependent on the people who work there. Taking into account the individual nature of work, higher standards are often expected of service industry personnel than of their industry colleagues, and wherever the service industry person comes face to face with the client, we demand good interpersonal relations as well. From the above it becomes evident, that the continuing development of the service sector in the fulfillment of the tasks assigned to service workers at the 26th CPSU Congress is greatly dependent on the development of constant, competent personnel. The capable education and the expansion of the capabilities of the young service personnel is especially critical, since the young account currently for more than 30 percent of all the workers of the Ministry for Services of the Estonian SSR. Within the service industry more than 1,300 workers are trained each year in individual or classroom fashion, with more than 60 percent of them being young. We are concerned, however, with the great mobility of the beginning service workers--each year almost a quarter of newly hired young people leave.

Why do the young leave the service system? There are, of course, many reasons, but most often mentioned are difficulties in accommodating to the new environment and work collective, the lack of skills in interpersonal relations, as well as the scarcity of other skills necessary to the service workers (4.5 percent of the young do not meet the work quotas), and the unadaptability to work discipline.

Also influential is the fact that many of the young have to begin work in small collectives, comprising just a few people, sometimes even alone (the number of shops, receiving points, and other service entities amounts to more than 2,000 within the framework of our ministry.)

Many service enterprises have good experiences in working with the young. For example, the service combine "Jogeva" and others have formulated a good tradition of receiving the young festively into the collective, having days of young workers and other meetings, as well as joint meetings of young workers and their supervisors, family sporting events, a festive handing over of the first salary. There is a movement afloat to develop socialist competition among the youth.

Twice a year the results of the socialist competition of the komsomol and youth collectives of the Services Industry Ministry of the Estonian SSR are compiled. In the all-Soviet competition of youth collectives the komsomol and youth collective of the shoemakers of the "Progress" services combine and the "Jarva" fashion atelier tailors' combine have received second place prizes. On the basis of last year's results the services combine "Ekspress" rental services komsomol-youth brigade (brigadir Tiit Paulus) was judged to be the best in the republic.

In view of the favorable influence of contemporaries on the accommodation of the young in the work collectives, on the formulation of correct convictions and world views, the Ministry of Services of the Estonian SSR has lately devoted great attention on the creation of komsomol and youth collectives. Last year the founding of komsomol and youth collectives and their socialist competition was discussed at a joint meeting of the secretariat of the ELKNU [Estonian Leninist Communist Youth Organization] and the collegium of the Services Ministry. While 11 komsomol and youth brigades functioned last year, their number has grown now to 82. The founding of komsomol and youth collectives provides a good opportunity for the implementation of the most effective form of direction--collective direction. This has become an effective means for the increase of the young's professional expertise, the creation of a comradely mutually co-operative atmosphere, the development of movement without deficiencies, and the raising of service culture standards.

A particular responsibility has been placed on the older generation of service workers--to be a worthy example to the young, a handover of the work in progress. This task is all the more complicated, since we are hiring more and more youths who have no work experiences or skills. The transfer from being served to being the server is not easy.

At the beginning of this year, 845 supervisors and more than a thousand workers were employed within the system of the Ministry of Services of the Estonian SSR. The vast majority of the supervisors are highly skilled, vastly experienced service workers who want to and are capable of teaching the young making their first steps into the working life; the former can imbue the young with a love of work and can transfer their experiences and recruit the young to social activity.

For example, seamstress Liidia Vaarmaa, having worked in the individual sewing factory "Lembitu" for 35 years, and having been elected president of the labor union council of the plant, has supervised 43 young persons, of whom 6 are already supervisors themselves.

In the "Sade" services combine, beautician Aile Nurmeste is employed as the youth supervisor. She graduated last year from the 10 month professional qualification course at Riga and has also attended the course for youth supervision. She supervises a brigade comprising graduates of the 19th technical school and other youths. The young constantly fulfill the plan, take part in social work; the quality of work and service is good. For devoted work in the supervision and education of the young, senior Mari Loogvali of the "Harju" services combine has received the pin of the youth director of UAKNU [All Soviet Labor Union Central Committee] and the ULKNU Central Committee. Seamstresses Anne Kruusberg and Anne Vahtra of the "Lembitu" individual tailoring factory also received awards. Vahtra was awarded the title of the best young service worker in 1979.

Experience has shown that the young workers themselves can be effective supervisors of contemporaries or those younger than themselves. Often the young relate better to young supervisors. Olga Lissitsina, a hairdresser first class of the "Jogeva" services combine received in 1978 the title of the best young service worker, and in 1979 she received a commendation of the Central Committee of the ELKNU. O. Lissitsina is one of the most active supervisors within the collective.

Within the services ministry, the youth supervisors regularly attend courses, instructional sessions, meetings, and lectures. In several enterprises seminars for directing supervisors are in session. A system of moral and material stimulation has been devised to stimulate the socialist competition among supervisors. Each year the professional orientation and the youth supervision is inspected.

It is incumbent upon us to develop the movement of supervisors even more to learn of the experiences to date, to generalize and to propagate them. Also, each services combine has to thoroughly examine and implement all the good experiences acquired in developing young cadres. The tasks for the 11th Five Year Plan are demanding. One of the reserves that can be brought to bear in solving these tasks is more effective educational work among the youth to reduce their volatility, to help them acquire the experiences necessary for fruitful work, and to become contributing members of the collective.

9240

CSO: 1815/10



## EDUCATION

### ALIYEV SPEECH AT REPUBLIC AKTIV MEETING ON STUDENTS

Baku BAKINSKIY RABOCHIY in Russian 30 Aug 81 pp 1-2

[Speech by G.A. Aliyev, candidate of the CPSU Central Committee Politburo and first secretary of the Azerbaijan Communist Party Central Committee, at 29 August 1981 meeting of republic party and soviet aktiv with students and lecturers]

[Excerpts] Dear Comrades!

Dear Young Friends!

We have gathered on the threshold of an important sociopolitical event in the life of our country: on 1 September tens of millions of young Soviet citizens will enter the classrooms and lecture halls of schools and institutes, tekhnikums and vocational-technical schools. A new academic year begins--a big and happy celebration for all students. After all, it is right here, within the walls of educational institutions, that the younger generation learns to live and struggle in Leninist and communist fashion and receives its pass for life and for its future.

Our country has embarked on the new decade in the bloom of its economic and defense might and multifaceted culture and armed with a scientifically substantiated long-term program of struggle for the further strengthening of the material and spiritual foundations of the developed socialist society (applause). The pinnacles of socio-economic, intellectual and scientific-technical progress reached by the Soviet people in the 1970's represent a strong foundation for even more vigorous advance in all areas of the building of communism (stormy applause).

Both the economic and social policy of our party have a single goal--a rise in the people's living standard, strengthening of the socialist way of life and all-around development of the personality. The inspiring and directing force in the masses' struggle for the achievement of these great and noble goals is our Lenin Party and the CPSU Central Committee headed by the outstanding theoretician of Marxism-Leninism and wise organizer of communist creation and tested leader of our party and the Soviet people--Leonid Il'ich Brezhnev (stormy, prolonged applause).

The Communist Party and the Soviet Government have created in our country all the conditions for highly productive, creative labor. For more than a third of a century now the Soviet people have been living under peaceful skies, and this is a priceless achievement of the CPSU's Leninist peace-loving foreign policy. The

Communist Party and the Soviet state, together with the socialist countries and all the world's progressive forces, are struggling consistently and persistently to consolidate peace and curb the arms race. The 26th CPSU Congress again convincingly demonstrated the peace-loving, constructive nature of the party's foreign policy and its constant fidelity to Leninist precepts and traditions. The congress confirmed with new force the vanguard role of real socialism in the struggle for peace and the prevention of thermonuclear war. As Comrade L.I. Brezhnev pointed out at the congress, "there is probably no state which has in recent years appeared before mankind with such a broad spectrum of concrete and realistic initiatives on the most important problems of international relations as the Soviet Union" (stormy applause).

Unswervingly implementing the Peace Program for the 1980's adopted by the 26th CPSU Congress, the Soviet Union has put forward a broad set of proposals embracing measures to reduce both nuclear and conventional arms and to settle existing and prevent new conflicts and crisis situations. Our government expresses a readiness to hold talks on all urgent questions of peace and security, treating attentively all constructive proposals of other states.

Under conditions wherein the international situation has become particularly strained and is becoming increasingly explosive on account of the intrigues of the forces of reaction and imperialism headed by the United States the calm and confident voice of the great fighter for peace and the peoples' security, Comrade L.I. Brezhnev, was heard from Moscow (stormy, prolonged applause). From the high tribune of the USSR Supreme Soviet Leonid Il'ich again confirmed the unshakable resolve of the Country of Soviets to do everything to preserve peace and secure people's right to life. The appeal "To the Parliaments and Peoples of the World" adopted on Comrade L.I. Brezhnev's initiative is a striking new manifestation of political wisdom in our state's international activity (stormy applause). The Soviet Union's ardent appeal for the defense of peace and the barring of the path to the nuclear threat elicited the broadest response in the world and a reaction from all to whom the security and future of mankind are dear.

Leonid Il'ich Brezhnev's recent friendly meetings in the Crimea with the leaders of communist and workers parties of the fraternal socialist states were convincing testimony to the resolve of the Soviet Union, together with all the socialist community countries, to defend peace and save it from the threat of a new war and to their aspiration to strengthen their economic and political ties. As the CPSU Central Committee Politburo emphasized, the outcome of the Crimea meetings was the necessary coordination of the foreign policy of the socialist community countries. This will contribute to the advancement of the socialist countries' peace initiatives, which apply to all the most difficult and explosive problems of current world politics (applause).

Together with all Soviet people, the working people of Azerbaijan warmly approve and support the CPSU Central Committee Politburo decree on the results of the Crimea meetings and the foreign policy of the CPSU and the Soviet state and express boundless gratitude to the party's Leninist Central Committee and Leonid Il'ich Brezhnev personally for the indefatigable struggle for peace and clear skies above us (stormy, prolonged applause).

Comrades! The 26th CPSU Congress emphasized the need for a further strengthening of the spiritual foundations of the Soviet way of life. An exceptionally important part was played by science and culture in the accomplishments of the Azerbaijan working people in the 1970's. The principal nerve of the culture of the masses is public education. Guided by the instructions of the party and the government, the Azerbaijan Communist Party Central Committee has done a great deal of work for a fundamental improvement in the entire business of the education and upbringing of the working people, a refinement in the system of public learning and higher and secondary specialized education and a rise in the quality of the training of students. Thanks to the measures adopted by the Central Committee, the situation in the educational establishments and bodies has recovered, exactingness toward the schools and VUZ's has risen and the principles of a scientific, objective and competent approach have been established.

The development of public education acquired great proportions in the 1970's, reflecting to a considerable extent the scale and dynamics of the republic's economic upsurge. Some 1,857,000 persons are currently embraced by different kinds of tuition. In other words, almost every third inhabitant of the republic is involved in this form of training or the other. More than 1.5 million of them are receiving instruction in general educational schools, 107,000 in VUZ's. This is clear evidence of the tremendous concern for the working people of Soviet Azerbaijan being displayed constantly by the CPSU Central Committee and the Soviet Government (stormy applause). And for this paternal concern and for the truly Leninist attention to our republic's younger generation we today express boundless gratitude to the CPSU Central Committee, Central Committee Politburo, Soviet Government and Comrade L.I. Brezhnev personally (stormy, prolonged applause).

More than 1 million persons completed general educational school in the Ninth and 10th five-year plans. Schools for more than 660,000 pupils were commissioned thanks to state and kolkhoz resources. Proceeding from the requirements of the economy, 23 new faculties and 72 new departments were inaugurated in the republic's VUZ's in 1976-1981. Yet another, the 18th, VUZ--the Azerbaijan Technological Institute in Kirovabad--has been built in 1981.

It may be confidently said that in the past decade our higher school grew both quantitatively and qualitatively and its role and significance as a most important source of the replenishment of all detachments of the people's intelligentsia of the republic strengthened. The party and government have evaluated highly the activity of the republic's higher school. State awards have been conferred on a number of VUZ's. A large group of VUZ workers has been awarded USSR orders and medals and given honorific titles of the Azerbaijan SSR (applause).

Profound transformations have occurred in the network of secondary specialized educational institutions--the number of tekhnikums and vocational-technical schools has grown. But the main point is that there has been a rise in the quality of the instruction of personnel of the mass occupations and in the reinforcement of the working class. Almost 440,000 skilled workers were trained in the vocational-technical education system in the Ninth and 10th five-year plans. Many production pacesetters, innovators and right-flank men of socialist competition have already grown from their ranks.



In 1981, the first year of the 11th Five-Year Plan, a large new reinforcement has joined the army of the republic's students. Some 133,000 children will enter first grade. Some 21,400 persons have been enrolled in the first-year courses of VUZ's, and 87,600 persons will attend classes for the first time in tekhnikums and vocational-technical schools.

What is the social makeup of the new entrants, who are the VUZ freshmen, with what equipment are they coming to storm the heights of learning? The answer to these questions is to be found in the results of the entrance examinations. Almost 70 percent of enrolled VUZ freshmen are workers or kolkhoz members or members of their families. Yet there was a time when they did not constitute even one-half of the entrants. The geography has also expanded considerably: the freshmen attending here represent practically all areas of Azerbaijan, including the mountainous and remote areas.

Affording youth from various regions and areas of Azerbaijan the broadest opportunities to obtain a higher education, we have begun to practice noncompetitive admission within the republic. This measure is aimed at facilitating the accelerated economic and social-cultural development of all areas of the republic in order to help each of them reach the foremost positions of economic and cultural building. Special places are being reserved in the university, the agricultural institute, the conservatory, the arts institute and other of our VUZ's for young men and women from the Nakhichevanskaya ASSR, the Nagorno-Karabakhskaya Autonomous Oblast and remote mountainous areas and for the Ingeloy, Meskheti and others.

It is well known that the entrance examinations to educational institutions are the key problem of a scientifically substantiated formation of the student body and of a strictly objective selection of the applicants. And for this reason the Azerbaijan Communist Party Central Committee constantly keeps this problem at the center of its attention. A great deal of work was done in the 1970's, securing a fundamental breakthrough in the organization of entrance examinations. An uncompromising struggle against such ugly phenomena in the practice of the organization of admission to the VUZ's as protectionism, bribe-taking and subjectivism, which were widespread in the recent past, bore fruit. Now the entrance examinations as a whole are conducted on the proper level, and the selection of the most capable applicants with profound learning is secured, in the main. This, in turn, has established in people the belief that only firm knowledge opens to the applicant the road to the VUZ. And today's speeches, particularly of Lyutviya Kuliyeva from Shamkhorskiy Rayon and Arzu Allahverdiyeva from Agdamskiy Rayon, who related how they had taken the examinations twice, but, while receiving positive evaluations, had not passed competitively but this year had taken the tests for a third time and had been admitted, testify convincingly that justice and an objective approach have truly become the dominating factors here in the entrance examinations (stormy applause). The results of the entrance examinations of 1981, the first year of the 11th Five-Year Plan, confirmed anew that the measures adopted by the Azerbaijan Communist Party Central Committee are fully justifying themselves and ensuring the arrival of the VUZ's at a fitting replenishment (applause).

An important area in the training of personnel with high skills is the practice which has evolved in the republic of sending large groups of young people to the VUZ's of Moscow, Leningrad and other cities. We now have an appreciable detachment of personnel trained in the best educational institutions of the Soviet Union in



the special fields for which there is a particularly acute need in the republic's economy. Some 853 persons, including 720 as freshmen, are being sent to the VUZ's of other cities this year. In addition, 42 persons have been enrolled in the Civil Aviation institute in Kiev. Altogether 3,600 young men and women from Azerbaijan will receive tuition in 244 special fields in various VUZ's of the Soviet Union this year (applause).

In this hall there are young people who have enrolled this year in VUZ's of Moscow, Leningrad and other cities of the Soviet Union. The republic's young emissaries will join the student collectives of the country's most representative and meritorious VUZ's. These include the Moscow State university imeni M.V. Lomonosov, the Moscow Power Engineering Institute, the Moscow Institute of Chemical Engineering, the Moscow Machine Tool-Building Institute, the University of Friendship of the Peoples imeni P. Lumumba, the Leningrad Refrigeration Industry and Aviation Instrument-Building institutes, the Kiev Polytechnical Institute, the Belorussian Institute of the Mechanization of Agriculture and many others. There has also been a considerable increase this year in the number of young people sent to such illustrious VUZ's as the Moscow Arts Institute imeni Surikov, the Leningrad Higher Industrial Arts School imeni Mukhina, the Khar'kov Industrial Arts Institute, the State Order of the Labor Red Banner Institute of Theatrical Art imeni A.V. Lunacharskiy and others. The training of young people in these important and necessary professions will contribute to satisfaction of many cultural establishments' need for qualified specialists.

The Azerbaijan Communist Party Central Committee and the republic government attach sociopolitical importance to our youth's instruction in the country's leading VUZ's. We are taking steps to use as efficiently as possible the opportunities afforded us. It is proposed to continue to increase the contingent of those sent to the VUZ's of other cities, extend the training of personnel in new specialties and improve the social composition of those leaving for training.

And today we again express cordial gratitude to the USSR Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education and the rectors, professors and lecturers of the VUZ's of Moscow, Leningrad and other cities for the great attention to and concern for the emissaries of Azerbaijan and for the active assistance rendered our republic in the training of highly qualified specialists (stormy applause).

It is gratifying that the geography of those enrolling in VUZ's in other cities is expanding with every successive year. While in rural areas, I have repeatedly heard the kolkhoz members and sovkhos workers speak with pride about their children receiving tuition in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev and other cities.

It may be noted with great satisfaction that we are scoring increasingly big successes in the working people's military-patriotic education. Our youth's growing gravitation toward study in the higher military schools testifies convincingly to its high patriotism and its desire to make its contribution to strengthening the USSR's defense. Some 300-400 young men of indigenous nationality now enroll in these institutions annually. This year the country's higher military schools have admitted 804 persons from our republic, including 416 of indigenous nationality. For the first time a large group of young people has been sent for enrollment in flying schools. Considerable credit for this is also due the specialized boarding school imeni Dzsh. Nakhichevanskiy, whose further development was envisaged in a

recent decree of the Azerbaijan Communist Party Central Committee and the republic Council of Ministers (applause). A new department for the training of basic military training and physical education teachers in the Azerbaijan Pedagogical Institute imeni V.I. Lenin, to which 150 young men have been admitted this year, has been inaugurated.

We were all greatly impressed by the speech of Rabil' Yusubov, graduate of School imeni Dzh. Nakhichevanskiy and officer cadet at the Baku Higher Combined Arms Command School. His speech, which was mature in content and imbued with patriotic feelings, testifies to the young man's certainty of being an officer and devoting his life to the defense of the motherland (applause).

In the higher military educational institutions the young people attend an excellent school of ideological-political education, are conditioned morally and physically and become organized and disciplined. Future officer cadets must constantly remember that the Soviet Army and Navy now more than ever before need people who are educated, ideologically staunch and physically strong and who are capable of combining the traditions of the selfless courage of the older generations with consummate knowledge of the latest military equipment (applause).

Comrades! A great sociopolitical campaign--admission of the new replenishment to the VUZ's--has been successfully completed in the republic. As a result of extensive competition, in which over 40,000 persons participated for daytime departments alone, the best prepared people who showed the best learning were selected.

A most important task now, when the academic year is beginning, is to ensure from the very first classes the precise organization and high quality of the entire educational process. The Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education, rector's offices, professorial-lecturer collectives and the party, Komsomol and trade union organizations of the VUZ's must approach the organization of the tuition and education of the students particularly responsibly, being guided by the tasks put forward by the 26th CPSU and 30th Azerbaijan Communist Party congresses and the requirements of the CPSU Central Committee and USSR Council of Ministers decree "Further Development of the Higher School and the Increased Quality of the Training of Specialists". The tuition and education of the students is a vital, creative business, there are no trifling matters here and formalism and stereotypes and work in the old way are intolerable. After all, it is a question of a most complex task--formation of the personality and the ideological conditioning of the builders of the communist future.

Helping the newcomers master the demands of the higher school, immediately enlisting the freshmen in social work, understanding in depth their requirements and interests and familiarizing them with the best tradition of the VUZ's--this is to what the efforts of the mentors of the student youth should be geared. This help and this concern will help the future specialists assimilate more confidently and rapidly the sum total of the necessary knowledge and prepare themselves for the independent labor road.

The VUZ professors and lecturers are called on to strengthen the alliance of science and labor, train highly skilled specialists, work with the maximum input on improving the educational process, instill in the students a creative attitude toward matters, foster a love of knowledge and the ability to apply it in practice and shape a sense of professional ethics.

If a student grows in an atmosphere of high-mindedness, honesty and devotion to the cause and if he sees that any lack of conscientiousness, indolence and trickery are unfailingly spotted and discussed, he himself will endeavor to follow the high models.

The Communist Party and the Soviet state are performing work which is tremendous in scale and historical significance, creating the conditions the most conducive to the burgeoning of the people's spiritual life and the all-around development of the younger generation. The working people's access to learning and cultural values is broadening constantly, and the ramified system of education and enlightenment put at the service of the people is being perfected. But acquiring knowledge, learning a profession and becoming a specialist useful to society are not only the constitutional right of a young person of the Soviet country but also his duty.

Implementation of the program of the USSR's economic and social development in the 1980's which has been outlined by the party confronts Soviet youth with crucial tasks. As Comrade L.I. Brezhnev observed at the 26th CPSU Congress, "the young people who today are 18-25 years old will tomorrow form the backbone of our society." This imposes on us, dear comrades, a historical responsibility for the fate of communist building in the motherland of the Great October and for the future of our socialist fatherland (stormy applause). And this means that you must be not merely good specialists but also socially useful citizens, patriots and internationalists and the worthy successors of the great revolutionary cause of your fathers and grandfathers (stormy, prolonged applause).

An inalienable component of the training of the young specialist is a further improvement in the knowledge of Russian--the language of the great Lenin, the language of the courageous pioneers of the new life and the language of the fraternity and friendship of the peoples and the most progressive ideas of the current era (stormy applause). Extended study of Russian is a priority task in the period of instruction in a VUZ. Its successful solution will open to you new vistas of human thought and access to the achievements of modern science, technology and culture. Each specialist with a diploma should combine within himself high professional skills with an excellent knowledge of Russian (stormy applause).

It is with a special feeling and kind parting words that I wish to address today the young people who have won the right to tuition in the VUZ's of Moscow, Leningrad and other cities of the country. You will be joining a remarkable international family of studenthood and an environment of young people representing our entire great Soviet Union. And it is your sacred duty to persistently acquire knowledge, worthily represent our republic by your entire conduct and appearance and always be aware of your responsibility to it and to your parents and comrades (stormy applause). We are confident, our dear young friends, that you will know how to uphold the glory and honor of Soviet Azerbaijan and will strengthen the international bonds of friendship with the fraternal USSR peoples headed by the great Russian people (stormy, prolonged applause). We wish you big success on the thorny, but noble path of learning (stormy applause).

The time will come when you also, as graduates and specialists with diplomas, will describe from this tribune to future freshmen leaving for the VUZ's of other cities the fine, intellectual atmosphere in which your student years passed and will share your thoughts and plans. Carry with you through your upcoming student life remembrance of our meeting today, which has become an illustrious tradition in the republic (stormy, prolonged applause).



A further improvement in the mechanism of admission to the VUZ's demands, inter alia, a constant refinement of the procedure and organization of the selection of the best prepared youth. It is necessary to continue to work on creating and reinforcing an exacting and at the same time benevolent atmosphere which guarantees a just evaluation of the knowledge of the VUZ applicants (applause). A direction of such a search for means of an objective approach to the selection of applicants is the use of computers. We have the first experience of examinations being conducted in the main subjects with the use of computers in the Azerbaijan Institute of Oil and Chemistry imeni M. Azizbekov. The time has come to make a comprehensive study of it and to determine further steps in this direction.

It is essential that the Ministry of Education and the leaders and party organizations of the schools implement a set of measures for the practical realization of the instructions of the 26th CPSU and 30th Azerbaijan Communist Party congresses. A most important task is a rise in the qualifications and the ideological-political level of the teachers and a refinement of their teaching culture and educational art. Particular attention should be paid to the creative quest of innovator-teachers and the struggle against formalism and all manifestations of pedagogical ignorance and intellectual staleness. The main thing is to foster a feeling of high responsibility for the fate of future generations of builders of communism in each teacher collective and in each instructor of the youth. There are masters of pedagogical labor everywhere, and it is very important to study and disseminate their experience and teach the young teachers on the basis thereof (applause).

Comrades! In striving for a constant growth in the number of those in tuition the Azerbaijan Communist Party Central Committee pursues a precise goal—annually replenishing the economy and science and culture with workers who have been trained on a modern level and who are capable and promising. Consequently, concern for the correct use of the VUZ graduates is today of the same fundamental significance as the admission and instruction of the students. The careful use of the graduates of VUZ's of other cities requires particular attention here. Unfortunately, there are instances of an inattentive, unintelligent attitude toward the allocation and use of these specialists. The republic Gosplan, State Committee for Labor and Social Problems and Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized Education must adopt the necessary measures to ensure that the young skilled specialists, who are so necessary to the republic, be used as intended, with the maximum returns and with regard for their creative potential.

In the near future we intend to meet the alumni of VUZ's of other cities of various years who are working in various sectors of the economy and culture and fruitfully applying their knowledge for the good of our republic and the entire socialist fatherland. I believe we will manage at this meeting to jointly discuss all urgent questions. Thus yet another good tradition will be born which will remind everyone of his responsibility to the republic and the people (applause).

Dear Comrades! You have today sworn a sacred oath at the memorial of the immortal 26 Baku commissars. This was Azerbaijan youth's oath of boundless devotion to the cause of the great Lenin and the Communist Party created and nurtured by Il'ich (stormy applause). You have sworn to be always and in all things worthy of the glory of Soviet Azerbaijan, its party organization and its people (stormy applause). We know that you will not depart from your given word and will justify the trust shown in you with excellent study (stormy applause). Big successes to you, dear friends, and happiness and good health (stormy, prolonged applause).



Long live Soviet youth! (Stormy applause)

Glory to its instructors--school teachers and VUZ lecturers! (Stormy applause)

Long live our great multinational socialist motherland! (Stormy applause)

Glory to the CPSU--the inspiration and organizer of all our victories! (Stormy, prolonged applause. All rise. Toasts ring out in honor of the CPSU and its Leninist Central Committee headed by Comrade L.I. Brezhnev, the friendship of the Soviet peoples and in honor of Soviet Azerbaijan, the republic party organization and glorious Azerbaijan youth)

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## EDUCATION

### NEW 5-DAY SCHOOL WEEK IN ESTONIA

Moscow PRAVDA in Russian 11 Sep 81 p 6

[Article by L. Klenskiy (Tallinn): "A Change of Schedule"]

[Text] The board of the Estonian SSR Ministry of Education had resolved to institute a 5-day school week in the schools in Vil'yandiskiy and Raplaskiy Rayons, in the city of Kokhtla-Yarve and in the elementary grades of Tallinn Secondary School No 20. The number of hours in the weekly curriculum will not change.

"A 5-day school week was instituted several years ago in the elementary grades of some Estonian schools," A. Aru, deputy chief of the School Administration of the republic Ministry of Education, said. "This means that what we are doing is developing our experience or, one could say, instituting it on a broader scale. The experiment begun in 1966 in Tallinn School No 21 by former Director A. Tikri has proved to be completely worthwhile."

The facts testify that a 5-day school week allows families to set off on Friday for their vacation home, the rest home of the enterprise where the parents work or simply a trip outside the city. Now parents can devote 2 full days to their children. Children have more time to spend in the fresh air, commune with nature and play. It is precisely this that students lack when they attend school 6 days a week.

"We were the first to experiment with this," Director O. Laurik of Tallinn School No 21 said. "Almost 15 years of experience has shown that in the elementary grades, and now in the primary grades, since 6-year-olds are being enrolled in schools, the students' academic progress has been much more impressive, not only in comparison to control groups in schools using the old schedule, but also in comparison to the higher grades in our school."

There is evidence that a 5-day school week is not as tiring for children.

Researchers have concluded that classes should begin no earlier than 8:00 in the morning in urban schools and 8:30 in rural schools. The number of lessons taught in the first grade should not exceed five, and the number in the second and third should not exceed six. The breaks between classes should be longer so that the children can spend this time in the open air, and not in the classroom. The amount of homework has not changed.

## DEMOGRAPHY

### REGIONAL SOCIAL DIFFERENCES MUST BE ELIMINATED

Moscow POLITICHESKOYE SAMOOBRAZOVANIYE in Russian No 8, Aug 81 pp 37-44

[Article by N. Aytov: "Regional Social Differences and Their Elimination"]

[Text] As the equalization of the working class and the kolkhoz peasantry progresses under developed socialism, thereby eliminating the more significant social disparities--interclass differences--the social policy of the party and the Soviet State, as pointed out at the 26th CPSU Congress, is increasingly focusing upon the elimination of differences which go beyond individual classes and on the resolution of problems demanding the most careful consideration of the characteristics and interests of each group in our society. Differences of this kind existed previously, but they were forced into the background, as it were, by the deeper manifestations of social and class inequality. Their elimination is now becoming one of our urgent tasks, however.

Because of this the CPSU Central Committee's Accountability Report to the 26th party congress underscored the need for a "smoothing out of social disparities in the territorial respect, so to speak" ("Materialy XXVI s"yezda CPSS" [26th CPSU Congress Materials], Moscow, Politizdat, 1981, p 54). These are manifested first of all in the fact that the people's cultural and living conditions are not the same in various regions of our enormous country. It is these disparities which frequently complicate the labor resource situation in many places.

It should be borne in mind, of course, that in each region there are still differences among people resulting from the fact that they belong to different classes, to the urban or rural population, to the categories of workers who perform physical labor or those engaged in intellectual work. In the entire aggregate of living conditions, however, the manifestations of regional inequality, as it were, are added to the social and class differences, creating disparities in the situations of people belonging to the same classes and social groups but living in different areas of the country.

This article discusses a few of the regional social differences and a number of problems involved in eliminating them.

The social differences still existing in our nation do not all have the same importance with respect to the development of society.

Some of these differences are inevitable under socialism and are even essential for its normal functioning and progress. These include wage differences, for example.

As long as work has not become the prime vital need of all the people, we must implement the financial interest principle and pay for labor according to quantity and quality.

Other social differences are unavoidable under socialism for a certain period of time. They are not only not essential, however, but actually retard socialism's development to some degree. These are the differences in actual opportunities to acquire a higher education for the members of certain social groups, as an example, and differences in the cultural and technological standards of the working class, the peasantry and the intelligentsia. The inequality in opportunities for acquiring a higher education for the children of workers, kolkhoz workers and intellectuals is a result primarily of differences in the cultural environment in which they are brought up, as a result of which the children of intellectuals are more successful in passing VUZ entrance exams than are the children of laborers. Preparatory departments, special VUZ courses and so forth have been set up to eliminate the negative social consequences of this actual inequality. It is clear that differences between the cultural and technological standards of intellectuals and of laborers are holding up the all-round development of the latter.

Finally, there are social differences (including social differences of a regional nature), which do not invariably arise out of the nature of socialism itself and which may or may not exist under socialism. These differences are not a result of the basic economic law of socialism or the law of planned, proportionate development of the economy, application of the socialist principle of distribution in accordance with the work performed, or the like.

Just what is the origin of social differences of a regional nature?

First of all, they can be produced by natural and climatic conditions, which to some degree serve as the basis for the territorial division of labor. It is naturally more expedient to raise grapes in Moldavia than in hothouses in Noril'sk. Natural and geographic factors also determine the location of enterprises of the extractive industry. Natural conditions therefore give rise to certain differences in the occupational structure of the populations of areas and therefore, to social differences--differences in the income levels, as an example (wage differences are fairly great among different branches of production).

It should be pointed out that natural and climatic conditions among the regions are not themselves of a social nature. Under socialism, however, they produce a certain inequality in living conditions, in the nature of the work performed, wages and so forth. In other words, they produce differences in the social circumstances of the people. Only in the highest phase of communism will natural differences not produce social disparities.

A certain nonuniformity in the economic development of various regions is yet another source of social differences among their residents. Academician N.N. Nekrasov, a well-known specialist on problems pertaining to the distribution of productive forces, wrote the following: "There are still regions poorly developed in the economic sense, along with the highly developed industrial and agrarian regions. The following are the main causes of territorial nonuniformity in the economic development of the USSR:



the historical process of regional concentration of the population and the economy in the European part of the USSR;

harsh natural and climatic conditions and the absence of economic preconditions for the development of arid areas in the Asian part of the USSR in the past;

a relatively low level of technology, which previously prevented the extensive and all-round development of productive forces in regions remote from the Center, with harsh natural conditions (N.N. Nekrasov, "Regional'naya ekonomika" [The Regional Economy], Moscow, 1975, p 129).

It is important that present differences in the economic development of regions are no longer linked to the national make-up of their populations. Comrade L.I. Brezhnev noted at the 26th CPSU Congress that we no longer have any backward national outlands ("Materialy XXVI s"yezda KPSS," p 55). Differences among oblasts in the same Union republic are frequently greater than differences among republics.

Regional social differences are also linked to the fact that the population of each region is a kind of social community with its own specific interests. Living together under specific economic, social, cultural and living conditions creates the objective basis for the development of local interests (and sometimes, localistic interests based on those). This situation is especially intensified by the fact that the population's real incomes depend greatly upon the size of public consumption funds apportioned to the given region. Because of this a region will try to obtain as much funding as possible for the construction of children's facilities, for public health needs and so forth.

The peculiarities of different regions' historical development can also be the source of social differences. The fact that Moldavia entered the USSR at a later date, for example, resulted in a lower level of education among the population than the Union average: According to the 1979 census there were 77 people with a higher education per 1,000 workers there, with an average Union figure of 100 (VESTNIK STATISTIKI, No 4, 1981, pp 69, 73).

Finally, the still-existing system for distributing funds to be spent on social development is having an extremely great influence upon regional social differences. A large part of these funds are now at the disposal of departments and enterprises and not local soviets of people's deputies. In the RSFSR, for example, more than half of the urban housing belonged to various departments in 1980, and almost 4,000 enterprises were managers of water lines, 2,700 managed sewage systems and 700 maintained hotels with a combined capacity of more than 100,000 guests (PRAVDA, 18 Sep 80). When they spend funds on the construction of housing, children facilities, hospitals and so forth, the ministries and departments do not always consider the real needs of the regions. Furthermore, they are actually not responsible for meeting those needs. As a result of this, the distribution of social benefits among the regions is sometimes a random thing, and totally unjustified inequality develops in the lives of their populations.

Regional social differences have a negative effect upon the nation's economic development. The CPSU Central Committee's Accountability Report to the 26th party congress states: "The implementation of programs for developing Western Siberia, the BAM zone

and other areas in the Asian part of the nation have increased the influx of people into those areas. People still frequently prefer to move from the north to the south and from the east to the west, however, although the expedient distribution of productive forces requires that they move in the opposite directions" ("Materialy XXVI s"yezda KPSS," p 54). And so, the need to eliminate territorial social differences is dictated by the need to provide the national economy with labor resources.

It is also required for the country's social development. The highest goal of the party's economic strategy is that of steadily improving the people's material and cultural standard of living and creating the best possible conditions for the individual's all-round development. Naturally, all these possibilities must be created for all the Soviet people, universally and more or less uniformly.

A scientific approach to the accomplishment of this task requires a precise assessment of the lives of the people. Academician P.N. Fedoseyev writes: "Unfortunately, the scientific institutions have still not provided precision tools for determining the quantitative and qualitative parameters of many social developments occurring in our society. We do not need to demonstrate the fact that without such measurements it is difficult to define actual trends in social development and to affect them in a planned manner" (VOPROSY FILOSOFII, No 2, 1980, p 13).

It is our opinion that the concept "living conditions" can adequately reflect regional social differences. It describes the real possibilities which the society makes available to the individual for the diverse types of vital activities inherent in the Soviet way of life. The concept is complex in structure and reflects numerous characteristics.

The first group of characteristics depicts the population's standard of living. This includes primarily the income level (earnings, wages paid to kolkhoz workers for work performed in the public farming operations, incomes out of public consumption funds and incomes from personal subsidiary plots). It would be incorrect to judge the standard of living from the size of incomes alone, however. Possibilities for using the money earned, that is, the kinds of food and manufactured goods available to the population in a given locality, are also highly important. Per capita retail commodity turnover (including public dining) was 1,028 rubles in Novosibirsk in 1979, for example, and 1,716 in Kishinev (VESTNIK STATISTIKI, No 12, 1980, p 70). One can see that the difference is an extremely substantial one.

This group of characteristics also includes the degree to which the population is provided with housing, children's and medical facilities and dining rooms. Regional differences are fairly great in this area. There was 10.3 square meters of useful living space per capita in Frunze in 1979, for example, and 14.3 square meters in Khar'kov. There were 105.2 hospital beds per 10,000 residents in Minsk in 1979, and 183 in Vil'nyus (VESTNIK STATISTIKI, No 12, 1980, pp 66, 68, 75). Labor conditions (the portion of heavy physical labor and the portion performed under harmful conditions, and the incidence of production accidents) and ecological conditions (good wages do not make the residents of a city happy, naturally, if the atmosphere there is contaminated) are also of considerable importance.

As we know, however, man has needs other than material needs. The citizen in the socialist society has an extremely broad range of objectively conditioned needs. Living conditions therefore include a number of noneconomic aspects. These are reflected in the second group of characteristics, which describe the actual possibilities provided by the society for the individual's all-round development.

In general, possibilities for the individual's all-round development are determined by the economic and the sociopolitical structure. It is not just possibilities on the level of the entire nation, of the entire society, however, which are important to the individual. Specific conditions for all-round development existing in the given region are also important. Just what elements make up these conditions? In our opinion, the most important factors are the following.

In the first place, they include the existence in a given region of complex work replete with intellectual, creative substance and capable of satisfying the needs of the modern, highly educated worker, kolkhoz worker and white-collar worker. There is more of this kind of work in industrially developed regions and in large cities. Attraction to this kind of work is one of the most important causes of the population's migration. Naturally, it is very important for a region to have a broad selection of types of work. The possibility of selecting from among different types of jobs depends primarily upon the degree of diversity of national economic branches located in a given region.

Secondly, they include the amount of free time used for the individual's all-round development. Basically, the actual amount of free time available to workers in the USSR depends upon two factors: the level of development of public domestic services (dining facilities, stores, domestic service enterprises, children's facilities and so forth) and the amount of time spent traveling to and from work. Even large cities differ extremely significantly, however, in the number of public dining enterprises per 10,000 residents: from 9 in Novosibirsk to 14 in Tallin (VESTNIK STATISTIKI, No 12, 1980, p 70).

In the third place, they include educational opportunities in a given locality. Differences among regions in this area are manifested mainly in the fact that individuals living in large VUZ centers have greater opportunities for entering institutes. Our studies covering the first half of the 1970s, for example, showed that 10 percent of the school graduates in Kamyshin (which has no VUZ at all) entered institutes, 20 percent of the graduates in Ufa and more than 40 percent in Krasnoyarsk.

In the fourth place, possibilities for the individual's all-round development are greatly determined by the availability of cultural facilities. Extremely great differences exist in this area. There were 31 movie theater seats per 1,000 residents in Chelyabinsk in 1979, for example, and 56 in Odessa (VESTNIK STATISTIKI, No 12, 1980, pp 66, 73). There were clubs with a combined capacity capable of handling 700 out of 1,000 rural workers in the RSFSR in 1975, 289 in Uzbekistan and only 154 in Moldavia ("Kompleksnyy plan razvitiya sfery obsluzhivaniya naseleniya" [The Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Public Services], Moscow, 1977, p 212). There are 26 professional workers in the arts per 10,000 residents in Estonia, but only 5 in Sverdlovskaya Oblast (SOTSIOLOGICHESKIYE ISSLEDOVANIYA, No 3, 1979, p 81).

In the fifth place, possibilities for physical development are an important element in the conditions for the individual's all-round development. The need for physical development is growing, since the lightening of the work brought about by the scientific and technological revolution has produced a situation in which the individual is carrying an inadequate physical load. This causes an increase in the incidence of cardiovascular disorders. Possibilities for engaging in physical culture and sports are determined by the availability of stadiums and sports fields, tourist and vacation centers, preventive health facilities and so forth. The regions differ fairly markedly in this respect.



In the sixth place, possibilities for the individual's social advancement and his growth in his profession, his skills and his specific job are an important condition for the individual's all-round development. These possibilities are determined to a great extent by the range of production and non-production branches in the region and the size of the population center.

Finally, we should also include opportunities for the workers to participate in the administrative process among the conditions for the individual's all-round development. Regional differences can arise in this area when the public-political activeness of the workers is poorly developed and when the principles of socialist democracy are violated.

The third group of indices describing living conditions reflects the individual's degree of confidence in the future. A sense of social optimism is an integral feature of the socialist personality. This optimism is created by the general circumstances of life in the Soviet society and the existence of solid guarantees of the right to work, to health protection, material security and so forth. In a given region or community, however, the people may experience the feeling of confidence in the future in different ways. With respect to this I would like to mention at least the following circumstances.

The full employment of all the workers in a given region is a significant aspect of their confidence in the future. We still have regions with a shortage of jobs and others with excess jobs, however. The CPSU Central Committee's Accountability Report to the 26th party congress contained the following statement: "In Central Asia and a number of areas in the Caucasus... there is a surplus of workers, especially in the rural areas. This means that we should take more vigorous steps to draw the population of those localities into the development of new territories in the nation. We also need to develop industries essential to the national economy there, of course, and to expand the preparation of skilled workers of the indigenous nationalities, primarily the rural youth" ("Materialy XXVI s"yezda KPSS," p 54).

A factor of considerable importance to a feeling of confidence in the future is the possibility for every individual to find employment and to retrain in the same region should his old job or specialty be eliminated (this frequently happens in the situation of scientific and technological revolution).

An important aspect of this confidence is the possibility of obtaining rapid and skilled medical treatment in case of illness. There is a significant difference among the regions in this respect. There were 103.5 doctors per 10,000 residents in Tbilisi in 1979, 89.6 in Kishinev and only 54.8 in Chelyabinsk (VESTNIK STATISTIKI, No 12, 1980, p 76).

Finally, the level of stress situations caused, as an example, by crime, poor operation of transportation systems, the crowding of people and a poor sociopsychological climate at certain enterprises is also an important element in our living conditions. While the crime rate has tended to drop in the nation as a whole--it has been reduced 3.5-fold during the 60 years of Soviet power (SOTSIOLOGICHESKIYE ISSLEDOVANIYA, No 3, 1977, p 99)--there has been a growth in the crime rate during some years in certain regions and communities. This has to effect the morale of the population, of course.



We feel that only the aggregate of all these three kinds of living conditions (standard of living, opportunities for the individual's all-round development and confidence in the future) can adequately describe the conditions for the people's vital activities in various regions.

This raises the matter of developing a standard system for evaluating living conditions, however. We frequently have a situation in which a certain region will be ahead with respect to certain aspects of living conditions, while lagging behind in others. Living conditions have to be measured as a whole. Only then can we determine that region "A" lags behind region "B" in its social development, as an example, and that additional funds need to be sent there and special steps taken to eliminate the lag. This sort of assessment of living conditions as a whole requires a summation of the indicators for living conditions, taking into account the relative importance of each indicator (It is up to the specialists to work out a proper formula.).

Naturally, it is important to have not just an overall appraisal of living conditions, but an appraisal of each of the elements as well. The overall assessment of living conditions may be fairly high, while the indicators for specific aspects (development of the public health system, for example) will be low. The availability of seats in dining facilities, let us say, cannot make up for an absence of hospital beds. We therefore need to take a comprehensive approach in assessing living conditions in various regions.

It is highly important to arrive at the proper tactics to be used in eliminating regional social differences.

It would be incorrect and unrealistic to attempt to make living conditions absolutely identical in all the nation's various regions. F. Engels wrote that "there will always be a certain inequality in living conditions between individual countries, areas and even localities, which can be reduced to a minimum but can never be totally eliminated" (K. Marx and F. Engels, "Soch." [Works], Vol 19, p 5).

The socialist principle of distribution according to the quantity and quality of the work can also be applied to the matter of regulating living conditions: The region which gives the nation the most should also receive more from the nation for its social development. At first glance this would appear to be proper and in conformity with the nature of socialism. Such an approach is one-sided, however.

We know that the socialist distribution system includes both distribution according to the quantity and quality of the work and distribution out of public consumption funds, the latter to a significant degree not linked to the quantity and quality of the work. It is designed to satisfy a number of man's needs, important from socialism's standpoint--the needs for education, health protection and improvement, use of the achievements of culture and art, and so forth. Under socialism public consumption funds are used to provide all citizens with certain minimal conditions for the individual's development, practically without any payment. These funds are used for making payments to families with children, to pensioners and so forth. This distribution system contributes to the elimination of social differences (for a more detailed discussion read V. Rogovin, "Public Consumption Funds and Expansion of Guarantees of the Soviet People's Social and Economic Rights" in POLITICHESKOYE SAMOOBRAZOVANIYE, No 5, 1981).

Distribution of the funds for social development among the regions based only upon their labor contribution would therefore violate the socialist principles for use of the public consumption funds. Furthermore, it would considerably increase the differences among living conditions for the populations of various regions and consequently, social differentiation of the society as a whole.

At the same time a certain degree of consideration of the labor contribution made by the population in a region for distributing funds for housing construction, the development of children's facilities and the cultural and domestic service system, and so forth, also has some positive aspects: It motivates the workers to improve production effectiveness and work quality.

We believe that it is especially important at the contemporary stage to regulate living conditions in the regions from the standpoint of ensuring the kind of migration which is best for the society. This is precisely what Comrade L.I. Brezhnev stated at the 26th CPSU Congress: "The individual leaves Siberia, let us say, most frequently not because the climate did not suit him or because the wages were too low, but because it is more difficult to obtain housing there or to place a child in a kindergarten, and there are few cultural centers. This is why we plan to build housing and the entire social and cultural system and to improve the supply of consumer goods for the population there at a more rapid rate during the present five-year period. Everyone agrees that the situation has to be changed there--and within the immediate future!" ("Materialy XXVI s'yezda KPSS," p 54).

In summary, we can say that we believe the living conditions for the populations of various regions must be regulated in such a way that decisions in this area lead to the gradual equalization of those conditions, in a way which motivates a region to increase its contribution to the development of the Union economy, which stimulates the development of new regions and migration patterns needed by the society. The achievement of such goals is being furthered, as an example, by decisions adopted by the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers on the Non-Chernozem Region, which lags behind a number of other regions in the nation with respect to the development of its agriculture and its social infrastructure.

A comprehensive approach to economic and social development is unquestionably the most important trend in the equalization of social conditions for the populations of various regions. F. Engels wrote: "In the communist society... the administration will have to take charge not only of individual aspects of public life but of the entire public life in all its specific manifestations and all its trends" (K. Marx and F. Engels, "Soch.," Vol 2, p 537). The transition to comprehensive planning of the economic and social development of the nation and its regions, as set forth in the new Constitution of the USSR, will contribute to the elimination of regional social differences. Central organs are expected to have the decisive role in the elimination of regional social differences. This in no way means, however, that local agencies can remain idle in these matters.

Fulfillment of the decree "On Further Increasing the Role of the Soviets of People's Deputies in Economic Development" passed in 1981 by the CPSU Central Committee, the Presidium of the USSR Supreme Soviet and the USSR Council of Ministers will unquestionably have a significant role in the elimination of regional social differences. It considerably broadens the rights of the local soviets as the organizers of the comprehensive social and economic development of their territories.

Naturally, a great deal depends upon the party and soviet organs of Union and autonomous republics, krays and oblasts, rayons and cities. After all, regional social inequality also exists to one degree or another within the republics and oblasts. The southern part of the Bashkir ASSR, for example, remained for a long time purely agrarian and lagged considerably behind the rest of the republic in its social and economic development. It was not until the party obkom and the republic's council of ministers took steps toward the economic development of the southern part of the republic (large industrial complexes were created in Kumertau and Meleuz) that its social development accelerated and once-wooden rayon centers were turned into modern cities with convenient housing and a developing system of cultural and domestic services. The Krasnoyarskiy Kray committee of the CPSU is giving a great deal of attention to the development of the social infrastructure for the Sayanskiy Territorial Production Complex. I could cite other examples such as these.

Local organs and labor collectives could do a great deal to eliminate social and economic backwardness in their regions. They could mobilize internal reserves at enterprises and steadily fulfill the economic and social development plans. "We must have rigid control," Comrade L.I. Brezhnev stated at the 26th CPSU Congress, "to see that funds for the social development of enterprises, cities and villages are used for precisely their designated purposes, used in their entirety and by the established deadlines" ("Materialy XXVI s"yezda KPSS," p 58). The search for and the use of additional possibilities in the oblast or kray--for increasing consumer goods production, for example--the pooling of enterprise funds designated for social development, the complete and expedient utilization of trade union funds, and so forth can play an important role in this matter.

And so, the elimination of regional social differences is an integral part of our society's advancement toward complete social equality and complete social uniformity. Both central and local organs, party and public organizations and labor collectives--actually, all the Soviet people--are expected to make their contribution to the accomplishment of the tasks involved in this.

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ETHNOSOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF MOLDAVIAN WAY OF LIFE

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[Review by V. D. Grishchenko of book "Opyt etnosotsiologicheskogo issledovaniya obraza zhizni (Po materialam MSSR)" /An Attempt at the Ethnosociological Study of the Way of Life (Based on Materials of the Moldavian SSR)/ by Yu. V. Arutyunyan, A. I. Subbotina, V. N. Shamshurov et al., edited by Yu. V. Arutyunyan (editor in chief) et al., USSR Academy of Sciences, Institute of Ethnography imeni Miklukho-Maklay, Moscow, Nauka, 1980, 270 pages]

[Text] The book was written by a collective of authors on the basis of the materials of an ethnosociological study which was conducted by the Sector of Concrete Social Research of the Institute of Ethnography of the USSR Academy of Sciences jointly with the Department of Ethnography and Art Criticism of the Moldavian SSR Academy of Sciences in 1971-1975 on the territory of the Moldavian SSR. It consists of an introduction, seven chapters and an appendix.

The first chapter is "The Environment and People." More than a third of the population of the republic lives in urban settlements, and the proportion of city residents is constantly increasing--from 32 percent in 1970 to 39 percent in 1978. The population of large cities is increasing especially rapidly. In the population of the Moldavian SSR the representatives of six nationalities make up an absolute majority: Moldavians, Russians and Ukrainians together make up 91 percent of the population; about 7.5 percent are (Gagauzy), Jews and Bulgarians.

The second chapter is "Ethnosociological Aspects of Labor Activity." At present among all the main nationalities of the republic more than half of the entire population and approximately 90 percent of the able-bodied participate in national labor. As in the other republics of our country, the national composition of the entire adult population of Moldavia and the national composition of the workers have become practically identical. The differences in the representation of the nationalities are more noticeable in the nonproductive areas: science, culture, education, health, than in industry. However, the rapid increase of the education of Moldavians, Bulgarians and (Gagauzy) is leading to a steady increase of their proportion in these areas. For example, from 1960 to 1970 with a considerable increase of the absolute number of workers of science the proportion of Moldavians among them increased from 25.8 to 39 percent, while among Russians and several other nationalities it decreased slightly, coming in line with the proportion in the urban population. From 1959 to 1970 the proportion of workers of



mental labor increased among Moldavians twofold—from 5.4 to 10.6 percent, while among Russians it increased 1.2-fold.

The group of workers of skilled physical labor is the most equalized by representation of the different nationalities; such a process of equalization is also observed among the intelligentsia. Thus, among urban Moldavians in the age group of 50-59 the proportion of the intelligentsia is half as much as among Russians, while among the young people of these nationalities (20-24 years old) there are no longer differences in this respect.

The greatest social increase of children as compared with parents is characteristic of Moldavians and (Gagauzy)—nationalities which in the recent historical past lagged behind the more urbanized peoples.

Similar trends are also characteristic of the countryside.

The third chapter is "The Family and Personal Sphere of the Way of Life." The indicators of the marriage rate are high among all the nationalities living on the territory of Moldavia. Among Russians living here they are higher than among Russians in the RSFSR, among Ukrainians they are higher than in the Ukraine. At the same time some differences are preserved between the nationalities in the republic. Thus, the (Gagauzy) are distinguished by the largest number of men and women who are married.

The most active elimination of national differences in the way of life is taking place in mixed national families. As the data of civil registry offices attest, a steady tendency for mixed marriages to be contracted between all the nationalities of the Moldavian SSR is being observed.

The frequency of dissolution of the marriage depends little on the national composition of the family. For example, in 22 years (1950-1971) in Kishinev there were 29 divorces per 100 registered uninational marriages, while for marriages, which are mixed with respect to nationality, this number was on the average 31.6 (p 81).

The comparison of the data of passport desks on the choice of nationality by children from mixed marriages with the data of censuses on the choice as the native language the language of the other nationality shows that in the case of the interaction of the Russian population and the population of the indigenous nationality of the union republic (the Moldavian republic) counter processes as if are observed: the children of mixed Russian-Moldavian marriages choose Moldavian nationality more often; on the other hand, the Russian language is chosen considerably more often as the native language by the representatives of other nationalities than the language of these nationalities is chosen by Russians. However, if we examine the cases of the interaction of other nationalities with the Russian population and the population of the indigenous nationality, a direct relationship is observed: the more often the children from mixed marriages choose Russian or the indigenous nationality, the more often the representatives of these nationalities consider Russian or Moldavian as their native language. Thus, "the processes of the formation of ethnic self-consciousness and ethnolinguistic processes (which reflect the processes of the transmission of culture in general) can act as relatively independent processes and coincide in direction only when the influence of the factors governing them coincide" (p 82).

The fourth chapter is "Cultural Life: Conditions, Intensity, Features." The materials of the study show that the differences in the rate of consumption of culture between socio-occupational groups are more pronounced among Moldavians and (Gagauzy) than among Russians, Ukrainians and Jews. Moreover, (Gagauzy) and in part Moldavians (among the latter especially people engaged in physical labor) are distinguished in all groups by more modest indicators of the rate of assimilation of culture. Another tendency is noticeable: the intellectuals of the different nationalities have fewer differences between them than the workers of physical labor of the different ethnic groups. At the same time the differences between the different ethnic groups are much smaller than between the polar socio-occupational groups--the intelligentsia and workers of physical, especially unskilled, labor.

The intensive process of the internationalization of culture, which is now taking place, does not mean the elimination of national self-consciousness. Moreover, with the development of culture, with the convergence of the sociocultural level of the different peoples the national self-consciousness may acquire an additional foundation, additional grounds. Even with the disappearance of some national features of culture the national self-consciousness may be maintained by images of the national culture, which acquire the nature of national symbolism. The native language, which can acquire the attribute of the native language even regardless of its real knowledge and use, is a feature of the national self-consciousness, which is established by statistics. Thus, for example, 34 percent of the Ukrainians living in the cities of Moldavia speak Ukrainian fluently, but the overwhelming majority of them (60 percent) consider this language to be their native language. Among Jews only 21 percent of the people of this nationality speak Hebrew fluently, but 52.8 percent consider this language to be their native language. A significant portion of the people of the different nationalities, who in practice have become familiar with the culture of a different nationality, indicate in documents their essentially nominal nationality.

The fifth chapter is "Bilingualism in the Soviet Way of Life." Observations on the role of the second language in different social and ethnic strata of the population "make it possible to infer two main directions of the social value of the second language in modern ethnocultural processes. Along one line--the social line--differences form between the different socio-occupational groups within the same people, along the other--the ethnic line--they vary from people to people. The social aspect of the question is connected with the personality characteristics of separate individuals, while the ethnic variations (from people to people) are connected with the functioning of the national culture of each people" (p 198).

The sixth chapter is "International Relations." In the ethnosociological study of the way of life the researchers are interested first of all in mass everyday interpersonal relations.

In Moldavia direct international intercourse is widespread, while in the cities it is in practice daily for the majority of the population. More than 80 percent of the urban Moldavians and 90 percent of the Russians, Ukrainians and other nationalities of the republic work in multinational collectives, and a large share of them work in collectives in which representatives of other nationalities make up half or more of the workers. As the study shows, 71.5 percent of the Moldavians, 84 percent of the Russians and 90 percent of the Ukrainians and Jews in cities have friends of a different nationality, while 24 percent of the Moldavians, 36 percent

of the Russians, 53 percent of the Ukrainians and 41 percent of the Jews have their closest friends among people of a different nationality (p 201).

More than half of the Moldavians, more than 60 percent of the Russians and 70 percent of the Ukrainians and Jews have relatives who are married to people of a different nationality or are themselves members of such marriages.

For the absolute majority of Moldavians, Ukrainians, Russians and other nationalities nationality is of no importance in business interrelations: 82 percent of the Moldavians in the city and 85 percent in the countryside, 77 percent of the Ukrainians, 82 percent of the Russians, 81 percent of the Jews and about 80 percent of the (Gagauzy) in the cities replied that the national composition of the production collective is not important for them, while some believed that it is better, more interesting to work in a multinational collective (for example, 18 percent of the (Gagauzy)).

The seventh chapter is "On Some Results and the Prospects of the Internationalization of the Way of Life (In Place of a Conclusion)." The authors emphasize that the national can be conditionally divided into two "subtypes," rather, two relatively interconnected types of national characteristics, which are nevertheless distinct from each other.

In one case it may be a question not so much of indigenous ethnic traits as of the national manifestations of social phenomena and processes, which are essentially common to all peoples.

Unlike national peculiarities of this type, the ethnic peculiarities proper, although not able to be, of course, socially indifferent, nevertheless usually "are of a relatively more stable nature. As an indicator of ethnic features, the sense of community with people of one's own nationality, which is expressed, in particular, through the system of informal relations, the national self-consciousness, the native language and, finally, several other specific elements of the national culture, which have been inherited and perceived, is distinguished first of all.

"These two subtypes of the national--the ethnic, on the one hand, and the social, which has national expression, on the other--are not necessarily closely interconnected" (pp 232-233).

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